

# THE LITERARY GAZETTE

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No. 1908.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 13, 1853.

## REVIEWS.

*History of the Byzantine Empire from DCCXVI. to MLVII.* By George Finlay, Honorary Member of the Royal Society of Literature. Blackwood and Sons.

MR. FINLAY has undertaken to write the history of a period, the attractive interest of which is far inferior to its actual importance. When Gibbon reaches the reigns of the successors of Heraclius, he says, "I should have abandoned without regret the Greek slaves and their servile historians, had I not reflected that the fate of the Byzantine monarchy is *passively* connected with the most splendid and important revolutions which have changed the face of the world." And with regard to the people he has this thoroughly Gibbonian sentence, "The subjects of the Byzantine empire, who assume and dishonour the names both of Greeks and Romans, present a dead uniformity of abject vices, which are neither softened by the weakness of humanity, nor animated by the vigour of memorable crimes." With patient assiduity and laborious research Mr. Finlay has compiled the annals of this unpromising epoch, and has filled up the masterly outline sketched by the historian of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire. In copious detail he describes the revolutions of the throne, the successions of families, the personal characters of the Greek princes, the mode of their life and death, the maxims and influence of their domestic government, and the tendency of their reign to accelerate or suspend the downfall of the Eastern Empire. Certainly more is made to appear in Byzantine history than Gibbon would lead us to expect, and than Voltaire describes when he speaks of it as "a worthless repertory of declamations and miracles disgraceful to the human mind." Mr. Finlay divides the history of the Byzantine Empire into three periods, strongly marked by distinct characteristics:—

"The first period commences with the reign of Leo III. in 716, and terminates with that of Michael III. in 867. It comprises the whole history of the predominance of the Iconoclasts in the established church, and of the reaction which re-instated the orthodox in power. It opens with the efforts by which Leo and the people of the empire saved the Roman law and the Christian religion from the conquering Saracens. It embraces a long and violent struggle between the government and the people, the emperors seeking to increase the central power by annihilating every local franchise, and even the right of private opinion, among their subjects. The contest concerning image-worship, from the prevalence of ecclesiastical ideas, became the expression of this struggle. Its object was as much to consolidate the supremacy of the imperial authority, as to purify the practice of the church. The emperors wished to constitute themselves the fountains of ecclesiastical as completely as of civil legislation.

"The long and bloody wars of this period, and the vehement character of the sovereigns who filled the throne, attract the attention of those who love to dwell on the romantic facts of history. Unfortunately, the biographical sketches and individual characters of the heroes of these ages lie concealed in the dulllest chronicles. But the true historical feature of this memorable period is the aspect of a declining empire, saved by the moral vigour developed in society, and of the central authority struggling to restore national prosperity. Never was such a succession of able sovereigns seen following one another on any other throne. The stern

Iconoclast, Leo the Isaurian, opens the line as the second founder of the Eastern Empire. His son, the fiery Constantine, who was said to prefer the odour of the stable to the perfumes of his palaces, replanted the Christian standards on the banks of the Euphrates. Irene, the beautiful Athenian, presents a strange combination of talent, heartlessness, and orthodoxy. The finance minister, Nicephoras, perishes on the field of battle like an old Roman. The Armenian Leo falls at the altar of his private chapel, murdered as he is singing psalms with his deep voice, before day-dawn. Michael the Amorian, who stammered Greek with his native Phrygian accent, became the founder of an imperial dynasty, destined to be extinguished by a Slavonian groom. The accomplished Theophilus lived in an age of romance, both in action and literature. His son, Michael, the last of the Amorian family, was the only contemptible prince of this period, and he was certainly the most despicable buffoon that ever occupied a throne.

"The second period commences with the reign of Basil I. in 867, and terminates with the deposition of Michael VI. in 1057. During these two centuries the imperial sceptre was retained by members of the Basilian family, or held by those who shared their throne as guardians or husbands. At this time the Byzantine empire attained its highest pitch of external power and internal prosperity. The Saracens were pursued into the plains of Syria. Antioch and Edessa were reunited to the empire. The Bulgarian monarchy was conquered, and the Danube became again the northern frontier. The Slavonians in Greece were almost exterminated. Byzantine commerce filled the whole Mediterranean, and legitimated the claim of the emperor of Constantinople to the title of Autocrat of the Mediterranean sea. But the real glory of this period consists in the power of the law. Respect for the administration of justice pervaded society more generally than it had ever done at any preceding period of the history of the world—a fact which our greatest historians have overlooked, though it is all-important in the history of human civilisation.

"The third period extends from the accession of Isaac I. (Comnenus) in 1057, to the conquest of the Byzantine empire by the Crusaders, in 1204. This is the true period of the decline and fall of the Eastern Empire. It commenced by a rebellion of the great nobles of Asia, who effected an internal revolution in the Byzantine empire by wrenching the administration out of the hands of well-trained officials, and destroying the responsibility created by systematic procedure. A despotism supported by personal influence soon ruined the scientific fabric which had previously upheld the imperial power. The people were ground to the earth by a fiscal rapacity, over which the splendour of the house of Comnenus throws a thin veil. The wealth of the empire was dissipated, its prosperity destroyed, the administration of justice corrupted, and the central authority lost all control over the population, when a band of 20,000 adventurers, masked as crusaders, put an end to the Roman empire of the East."

Of Leo III., commonly called Leo the Isaurian, with whose reign the history commences, the character is sketched in the opening chapter:—

"Leo III. has strong claims to be regarded as the first of a new series of emperors. He was the founder of a dynasty, the saviour of Constantinople, and the reformer of the church and state. He was the first Christian sovereign who arrested the torrent of Mohammedan conquest; he improved the condition of his subjects; he attempted to purify their religion from the superstitious reminiscences of Hellenism, with which it was still debased, and to stop the development of a quasi-idolatry in the orthodox church. Nothing can prove more decidedly the right of his empire to assume a new name than the contrast presented by the condition of its inhabitants to that of the subjects of the preceding dynasty. Under the successors of Heraclius, the Roman Empire presents

the spectacle of a declining society, and its thinly-peopled provinces were exposed to the intrusion of foreign colonists and hostile invaders. But, under Leo, society offers an aspect of improvement and prosperity; the old population revives from its lethargy, and soon increases, both in number and strength, to such a degree as to drive back all intruders on its territories. In the records of human civilisation, Leo the Isaurian must always occupy a high position, as a type of what the central power in a state can effect even in a declining empire."

Leo's first service was in the guards of Justinian, and he so distinguished himself in the Colchian war that he received from Anastasius II. the command of the Anatolian legions. Of his previous history there are some strange legends, evidently suggested by his subsequent career. He was a native of Isauria, and his original name was Conon. These legends describe him as an itinerant pedlar, who drove an ass to the country fairs with petty merchandize, and relate how he once met on the road some Jewish fortune-tellers, who promised him the Roman Empire, on condition that he should abolish the worship of idols. This is the satire of popish writers, who are full of abuse of the leader of the Iconoclasts. Many other tales Mr. Finlay has collected from the old chroniclers, but he agrees with Gibbon in thinking the most probable account to be that which relates the migration of Conon's father from Asia Minor to Thrace, where he exercised the lucrative trade of a grazier, and that the son was introduced to the Emperor Justinian II. by bringing a present of five hundred sheep as he was advancing to regain possession of his throne with the aid of the Bulgarians. This well-timed gift gained him the rank of spatharios, and thenceforth he remained in the military service of the Emperor. The state of affairs when he was raised to the throne by the suffrage of the army is thus described:—

"When Leo was raised to the throne, the empire was threatened with immediate ruin. Six emperors had been dethroned within the space of twenty-one years. Four perished by the hand of the public executioner, one died in obscurity, after being deprived of sight, and the other was only allowed to end his days peacefully in a monastery, because Leo felt the imperial sceptre firmly fixed in his own grasp. Every army assembled to encounter the Saracens had broken out into rebellion. The Bulgarians and Slavonians wasted Europe up to the walls of Constantinople; the Saracens ravaged the whole of Asia Minor to the shores of the Bosphorus.

"Amorium was the principal city of the theme Anatolikon. The Caliph Suleiman had sent his brother, Moslemah, with a numerous army, to complete the conquest of the Roman empire, which appeared to be an enterprise of no extraordinary difficulty, and Amorium was besieged by the Saracens. Leo, who commanded the Byzantine troops, required some time to concert the operations by which he hoped to raise the siege. To gain the necessary delay, he opened negotiations with the invaders, and, under the pretext of hastening the conclusion of the treaty, he visited the Saracen general engaged in the siege with an escort of only 500 horse. The Saracens were invited to suspend their attacks until the decision of Moslemah—who was at the head of another division of the Mohammedan army—could be known. In an interview which took place with the bishop and principal inhabitants of Amorium, relating to the proffered terms, Leo contrived to exhort them to continue their defence, and assured them of speedy succour. The besiegers, nevertheless, pressed forward their approaches. Leo, after his interview with the Amorians, proposed that the Saracen general should accompany him to the headquarters of Moslemah. The Saracen readily agreed to an

arrangement which would enable him to deliver so important a hostage to the commander-in-chief. The wary Isaurian, who well knew that he would be closely watched, had made his plan of escape. On reaching a narrow defile, from which a cross road led to the advanced posts of his own army, Leo suddenly drew his sabre and attacked the Saracens about his person; while his guards, who were prepared for the signal, easily opened a way through the two thousand hostile cavalry of the escort, and all reached the Byzantine camp in safety. Leo's subsequent military dispositions and diplomatic negotiations induced the enemy to raise the siege of Amorium, and the grateful inhabitants united with the army in saluting him Emperor of the Romans. But in his arrangements with Moslemah, he is accused by his enemies of having agreed to conditions which facilitated the further progress of the Mohammedans, in order to secure his own march to Constantinople. On this march he was met by the son of Theodosius III., whom he defeated. Theodosius resigned his crown, and retired into a monastery; while Leo made his triumphal entry into the capital by the Golden Gate, and was crowned by the Patriarch in the church of St. Sophia on the 25th of March, 717."

During the reign of Leo the power of the Saracens had reached its zenith. The Caliph Suleiman ruled from the banks of the Indus to the shores of the Atlantic. Spain in the west and Scinde in the east were among their latest conquests. Flushed with success, Suleiman deemed that the capture of Constantinople and the overthrow of the Christian empire in the east could be now effected. Under Moslemah, the Caliph's brother, siege was laid to the capital of the Byzantine empire. Although few details have been preserved, there can be no doubt that Leo's defence was one of the most brilliant exploits of these times. The Saracens had to retire with immense loss, and received a check in the east almost as great as they received in the west a few years later from Charles Martel.

"The vanity of Gallic writers has magnified the success of Charles Martel over a plundering expedition of the Spanish Arabs into a marvellous victory, and attributed the deliverance of Europe from the Saracen yoke to the valour of the Franks. A veil has been thrown over the talents and courage of Leo, a soldier of fortune, just seated on the imperial throne, who defeated the long-planned schemes of conquest of the caliphs Welid and Suleiman. It is unfortunate that we have no Isaurian literature.

"The catastrophe of Moslemah's army, and the state of the caliphate during the reigns of Omar II. and Yesid II., relieved the empire from all immediate danger, and Leo was enabled to pursue his schemes for reorganising the army and defending his dominions against future invasions. The war was languidly carried on for some years, and the Saracens were gradually expelled from most of their conquests beyond Mount Taurus. In the year 726, Leo was embarrassed by seditions and rebellions, caused by his decrees against image-worship. Hescham seized the opportunity, and sent two powerful armies to invade the empire. Cæsarea was taken by Moslemah; while another army, under Moawyah, pushing forward, laid siege to Nicæa. Leo was well pleased to see the Saracens consume their resources in attacking a distant fortress; but though they were repulsed before Nicæa, they retreated without serious loss, carrying off immense plunder. The plundering excursions of the Arabs were frequently renewed by land and sea. In one of these expeditions, the celebrated Sid-Al-Battal carried off an individual who was set up by the Saracens as a pretender to the Byzantine throne, under the pretext that he was Tiberius, the son of Justinian II. Two sons of the caliph appeared more than once at the head of the invading armies. In the year 739, the Saracen forces poured into Asia Minor in immense numbers, with all their early energy. Leo, who

had taken the command of the Byzantine army, accompanied by his son Constantine, marched to meet Sid-Al-Battal, whose great fame rendered him the most dangerous enemy. A battle took place at Acroinon, in the Anatolic theme, in which the Saracens were totally defeated. The valiant Sid, the most renowned champion of Islamism, perished on the field; but the fame of his exploits has filled many volumes of Moslem romance, and furnished some of the tales that have adorned the memory of the Cid of Spain, three hundred years after the victory of Leo. The Western Christians have robbed the Byzantine empire of its glory in every way. After this defeat the Saracen power ceased to be formidable to the empire, until the energy of the caliphate was revived by the vigorous administration of the Abbassides."

Another important event in history took place during the reign of Leo the Isaurian, the assertion of the independence of the papal power, and the decline of the Byzantine rule over central Italy:—

"The election of Gregory III. to the papal chair was confirmed by the Emperor Leo in the usual form; nor was that pope consecrated until the mandate from Constantinople reached Rome. This was the last time the emperors of the East were solicited to confirm the election of a pope. Meanwhile Leo steadily pursued his schemes of ecclesiastical reform, and the opposition to his measures gathered strength. Gregory III. assembled a council in Rome, at which the municipal authorities, whose power Leo was endeavouring to circumscribe, were present along with the nobles; and in this council the whole body of the Iconoclasts were excommunicated. Leo now felt that force alone could maintain Rome and its bishops in their allegiance. With his usual energy, he despatched an expedition under the command of Manes, the general of the Kibyraiote theme, with orders to send the pope a prisoner to Constantinople, to be tried for his treasonable conduct. A storm in the Adriatic, the lukewarm conduct of the Greeks in the imperial service, and the courage of the people of Ravenna, whose municipal institutions enabled them to act in an organised manner, caused the complete overthrow of Manes. Leo revenged himself for this loss by confiscating all the estates of the papal see in the eastern provinces of his empire, and by separating the ecclesiastical government of southern Italy, Sicily, Greece, Illyria, and Macedonia, from the papal jurisdiction, and placing these countries under the immediate authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

"From this time, A.D. 733, the city of Rome enjoyed political independence under the guidance and protection of the popes; but the officers of the Byzantine emperors were allowed to reside in the city, justice was publicly administered by Byzantine judges, and the supremacy of the Eastern Empire was still recognised. So completely, however, had Gregory III. thrown off his allegiance, that he entered into negotiations with Charles Martel, in order to induce that powerful prince to take an active part in the affairs of Italy. The pope was now a much more powerful personage than the Exarch of Ravenna, for the cities of central Italy, which had assumed the control of their local government, intrusted the conduct of their external political relations to the care of Gregory, who thus held the balance of power between the Eastern emperor and the Lombard king. In the year 742, while Constantine V., the son of Leo, was engaged with a civil war, the Lombards were on the eve of conquering Ravenna, but Pope Zacharias threw the whole of the Latin influence into the Byzantine scale, and enabled the exarch to maintain his position until the year 751, when Astolph, king of the Lombards, captured Ravenna. The exarch retired to Naples, and the authority of the Byzantine emperors in central Italy ended."

From the long and prosperous reign of Leo, which forms by far the most interesting part of Mr. Finlay's volume, we pass on to give a few miscellaneous notices of subse-

quent times of Byzantine history. In 809, under the reign of Nicephorus I., the fifth in succession from Leo III., we read of the death of the renowned Haroun-al-Raschid, of whom the author forms a very different estimate from what is held by every reader of the 'Arabian Nights':—

"The death of Haroun, in 809, delivered the Christians from a barbarous enemy, who ruined their country like a brigand, without endeavouring to subdue it like a conqueror. Haroun's personal valour, his charity, his liberality to men of letters, and his religious zeal, have secured him interested panegyrics, which have drowned the voice of justice. The hero of the Arabian Tales and the ally of Charlemagne is vaunted as one of the greatest princes who ever occupied a throne. The disgraceful murder of the Barmecides, and many other acts of injustice and cruelty, give him a very different character in history. His plundering incursions into the Byzantine empire might have been glorious proofs of courage in some petty Syrian chieftain, but they degrade the ruler of the richest and most extensive empire on the earth into a mere slave-dealer."

In 820 a revolution occurred, when Leo V., the Armenian, the last of the Isaurian dynasty, was assassinated, and Michael II., a soldier of low origin, was raised to the throne. His dynasty, called the Amorian, lasted nearly half a century, and was succeeded in 867 by the Basilian dynasty, founded by Basil I., the Macedonian. In describing the encroachments of the Moslem power during the ninth century, much is justly referred to the misgovernment of the provinces, the oppressed people of which offered little resistance to their invaders. It was then that Crete and Sicily easily fell into the hands of the Saracens:—

"Crete and Sicily, two of the most valuable provinces of the Byzantine empire, inhabited almost exclusively by Greeks, and both in a high state of civilisation and prosperity, were conquered by the Saracens without offering the resistance that might have been expected from the wealth and numbers of the inhabitants. Indeed, we are compelled to infer that the change from the orthodox sway of the emperors of Constantinople to the domination of the Mohammedans, was not considered by the majority of the Greeks of Crete and Sicily so severe a calamity as we generally believe. In almost every case in which the Saracens conquered Christian nations, history unfortunately reveals that they owed their success chiefly to the favour with which their progress was regarded by the mass of the people. To the disgrace of most Christian governments, it will be found that their administration was more oppressive than that of the Arabian conquerors. Oppression commenced when the rude tribes of the desert adopted the corruptions of a ruling class. The inhabitants of Syria welcomed the first followers of Mahomet; the Copts of Egypt contributed to place their country under the domination of the Arabs; the Christian Berbers aided in the conquest of Africa. All these nations were induced, by hatred of the government at Constantinople, to place themselves under the sway of the Mohammedans. The treachery of the nobles, and the indifference of the people, made Spain and the south of France an easy prey to the Saracens. The conquest of Crete and Sicily must be traced to the same causes, for if the mass of the people had not been indifferent to the change, the Byzantine government could easily have retained possession of these valuable islands. The same disgraceful characteristic of Christian monarchies is also apparent at a much later period. The conquest of the Greeks, Servians, and Wallachians by the Ottoman Turks was effected rather by the voluntary submission of the mass of the Christians than by the power of the Mohammedans. This fact is rendered apparent by the effective resistance offered by the Albanians under Scanderbeg. Church and state must divide between them this



blot on Christian society, for it is difficult to apportion the share due to the fiscal oppression of Roman centralisation, and to the unrelenting persecution of ecclesiastical orthodoxy."

Later in the history the records commence of invasion from another quarter, when the Russians first turned their steps towards the Bosphorus. Towards the middle of the tenth century these invaders became formidable. In describing one of the Russian campaigns a passage occurs which gains interest from events passing in our own day:—

"Military operations for the defence and attack of Constantinople are dependent on some marked physical features of the country between the Danube and Mount Hæmus. The Danube, with its broad and rapid stream, and line of fortresses on its southern bank, would be an impregnable barrier to a military power possessing an active ally in Hungary and Servia; for it is easy to descend the river and concentrate the largest force on any desired point of attack, to cut off the communications or disturb the flanks of the invaders. Even after the line of the Danube is lost, that of Mount Hæmus covers Thrace; and it formed a rampart to Constantinople in many periods of danger under the Byzantine emperors. It was then traversed by three great military roads passable for chariots. The first, which has a double gorge, led from Philippopolis to Sardica by the pass called the Gates of Trajan (now Kapou Dervend), throwing out three branches from the principal trunk to Naisos and Belgrade. The great pass forms the point of communication likewise with the upper valley of the Strymon, from Skupi to Ulpiana, and the northern parts of Macedonia. Two secondary passes communicate with this road to the north-east, affording passage for an army—that of Kezanlik, and that of Isladi; and these form the shortest lines of communication between Philippopolis and the Danube about Nicopolis, through Bulgaria. The second great pass is towards the centre of the range of Hæmus, and has preserved among the Turks its Byzantine name of the Iron Gate. It is situated on the direct line of communication between Adrianople and Roustchouk. Through this pass a good road might easily be constructed. The third great pass is that to the east, forming the great line of communication between Adrianople and the Lower Danube near Silistria (Dorystolon). It is called by the Turks Nadir Dervend. The range of Hæmus has several other passes independent of these, and its parallel ridges present numerous defiles. The celebrated Turkish position at Shoumla is adapted to cover several of these passes, converging on the great eastern road to Adrianople.

"The Emperor John marched from Adrianople just before Easter, when it was not expected that a Byzantine emperor would take the field. He knew that the passes on the great eastern road had been left unguarded by the Russians, and he led his army through all the defiles of Mount Hæmus without encountering any difficulty. The Russian troops stationed at Presthlava, who ought to have guarded the passes, marched out to meet the emperor when they heard he had entered Bulgaria. Their whole army consisted of infantry; but the soldiers were covered with chain armour, and accustomed to resist the light cavalry of the Patzinaks and other Turkish tribes. They proved, however, no match for the heavy-armed lancers of the imperial army; and, after a vigorous resistance, were completely routed by John Zimiskes, leaving eight thousand five hundred men on the field of battle."

We cannot refrain from here quoting some remarkable sentences from Gibbon, relating to the predicted rule of Russia in Constantinople. It is in Chapter LV. of his History:

"The memory of these Arctic fleets that seemed to descend from the polar circle, left a deep impression of terror on the imperial city. By the vulgar of every rank, it was asserted and believed, that an equestrian statue in the square of Taurus

was secretly inscribed with a prophecy, how the Russians, in the last days, should become masters of Constantinople. In our own time, a Russian armament, instead of sailing from the Borysthenes, has circumnavigated the continent of Europe; and the Turkish capital has been threatened by a squadron of strong and lofty ships of war, each of which, with its naval science and thundering artillery, could have sunk or scattered an hundred canoes such as those of their ancestors. Perhaps the present generation may yet behold the accomplishment of the prediction—a rare prediction, of which the style is unambiguous and the date unquestionable."

We must make room for one other extract from Mr. Finlay's book, where, at the close of the history, he is giving a summary of what is known of the internal state of the empire, the outward annals of which he has been narrating. After lamenting the scanty source of information on this subject, of which all modern historians have had to complain, he remarks:—

"Two grand social distinctions illuminate the obscurities of Byzantine history during the period comprised in this volume. A regular administration of justice, that secured a high degree of security for life and property, gave the people an immeasurable superiority over the subjects of all contemporary governments, and bound the various nations within the limits of the Eastern Empire in willing submission to the central power.

"Through all the darkness of the Byzantine annals, we perceive that a middle class exerted some influence on society, and that it formed an element of the population, independent of the heterogeneous national races from which it was composed. But the nature of its composition explains sufficiently why its political influence proved extremely insignificant when compared with its numbers, wealth, and social importance. Local institutions were reduced to such a state of subordination to the central authority, that they wanted the power to train the different nations of which the middle class was composed to similar political sentiments. All attempts of the people to reform their own condition proved fruitless, and demands for redress of public grievances could only prove successful by a revolution. Perhaps this evil may be inherent in the nature of all governments which carry centralisation so far as to suppress the expression of public opinion in municipal bodies. In such governments, whether monarchical or republican, the central authority becomes so powerful, that public opinion is rendered inefficacious to effect reform, and the people soon learn to regard revolutions as the only chance of improvement.

"The middle class through the Byzantine empire was a remnant of ancient society—an element that had survived from the days of municipal liberty and national independence. Many free citizens still continued to till their lands—many were occupied in manufactures and commerce. It was the existence of this class which filled the treasury of the emperors—(taxation yields comparatively little in a state peopled by great nobles and impoverished serfs);—and it was the wealth of the Byzantine government which gave it an ultimate superiority over all its contemporaries for several centuries. Military excellence was at that time as much the effect of individual strength and activity in the soldier, as of discipline in the army or talent in the general. The wealth of the Byzantine emperors enabled them to fill their armies with the best soldiers in Europe; in their mercenary legions, knights and nobles fought in the ranks, and the captains of their guards were kings and princes. Nor were the native troops inferior to the foreign mercenaries. The lance of the Byzantine officer was famous in personal encounters long before the aristocracy of western Europe sought military renown by imitating an exercise in which slight-of-hand rather than valour secured the victory."

Mr. Finlay has throughout given constant references to the original historians, so that

his work will serve as a guide to those who desire more minutely to examine the subject. Having before him this purpose of copiousness and accuracy, the author has aimed less at writing a popular history. The general reader will probably find the style often heavy and the details uninteresting, but the classical scholar and the student of history will appreciate Mr. Finlay's labours, and rightly estimate the value of his account of the Byzantine Empire.

*History of the Protestants of France from the Commencement of the Reformation to the Present Time.* Translated from the French of G. De Félice, D.D., Professor of Theology at Montauban. Longman and Co.

*History of the Protestants of France.* By G. De Félice. Translated by Philip Edward Barnes, Esq., B.A., of the Middle Temple. Routledge and Co.

PROTESTANTISM in France has had a more strange and eventful history than in any other country of Europe. In 1521, four years after Luther came to an open rupture with the papacy by affixing his thesis against indulgences on the doors of the church at Wittemburg, and the very year that he appeared before the Diet of Worms, the doctrines of the Reformation were first publicly heard in the town of Meaux. Jacques Lefevre and Guillaume Farel were the first Protestant preachers of France. Their influence was immense, and in the course of a few years the doctrines of the Reformation had spread far and wide through the kingdom. The doctors of the Sorbonne took the alarm, and roused the church to oppose the advancing heresy. Finding themselves impotent against the cause of truth, the aid of the civil power was invoked. Persecution commenced, and in 1523 the first Protestant martyrdoms took place. But the more the Reformers were oppressed the more they multiplied and grew. With such leaders as Calvin and Beza, and the countenance of many men of rank and learning, all the power of Francis I., and the malignant cruelties of the Romish church, failed to check the progress of the Reformation:—

"Towards the end of the reign of Francis I., and under that of his son Henry II., the Reformation made such rapid progress, that it becomes impossible to follow it in all its details. Men of letters, of the law, of the sword, of the Church itself, hastened to its banner. Several great provinces,—Languedoc, Dauphiny, the Lyonnese, Guienne, Saintonge, Poitou, the Orléanese, Normandy, Picardy, Flanders; the most considerable towns of the kingdom,—Bourges, Orléans, Rouen, Lyons, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Montpellier, La Rochelle, were peopled with Reformers. It is calculated that they comprised in a few years nearly a sixth of the population, of whom they were the élite. They might have repeated the saying of Tertullian: 'We date only from yesterday, and are, yet, everywhere.'"

The leading events of the history of Protestantism mark also conspicuous periods in the national history. The massacre of St. Bartholomew, the wars of the Huguenots, the reign of Henry IV., the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, these are epochs in French history chiefly from their connexion with ecclesiastical events. The history of France cannot be written without the affairs of the Reformed Church occupying a prominent part in the narrative. But there has not hitherto been any connected and detailed account of French Protestantism, describing its rise and progress, its internal constitution



and history. M. Félice has undertaken to give such a sketch of one branch of the Protestant Church, that which is known as the Reformed or Calvinist, as distinguished from the Lutheran Church. The latter, including chiefly the people of the Alsacian provinces, annexed to France in the reign of Louis XIV., number about a third of the whole Protestants of France, but they have not borne a corresponding share in the events of its ecclesiastical history. M. Félice confines his narrative to the Reformed Church, the Huguenots, whose name is so mixed up with the national annals. The narrative is brought down to our own day, and furnishes a concise and clear sketch of one of the most important departments of church history. A few extracts will show the author's ability and learning as a historian, and give idea of the style of moderation and candour in which his work is written. We first give his sketch of Jeanne d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre:—

"She was born at Paris, in 1528, and was the only daughter of Margaret of Valois: she had all the brilliant qualities of her mother, combined with a firmer piety, and a more decided character. Her education was solid and well directed. She understood Greek, Latin, and Spanish, and wrote verses with facility in a poetical contest with Joachim du Bellay.

"In 1548 she married Anthony de Bourbon, and in 1555, on the death of her father, she took the name of Queen of Navarre. Jeanne d'Albret was slower than her husband in embracing the Reformed faith; she only decided in 1560; but she was unalterably constant to it; and when Catherine de Medicis advised her to fall in with the altered humour of the king of Navarre, she made this answer, which marks the fervour of the newly-converted: 'Madame, rather than ever go to mass, if I had my kingdom and my son in my hand, I would cast them both into the depths of the sea.'

"At the moment of her departure for Béarn, she clasped her son Henry in her arms, bathed him with her tears, and beseeched him to preserve the faith in which he had been educated. One day Henry IV. had to forget both the prayers and the farewell of his mother.

"When she was once more in her kingdom, Jeanne d'Albret, taking up the work of Margaret Valois, opened schools, colleges, and hospitals, and published a new code—a precious monument of good sense and wisdom—which bears the name of *Stil de la Reine Jehanne*. Soon there was not a beggar in Béarn. The children of the poor, who showed any aptitude for sciences and literature, were educated at the expense of the treasury. Drunkenness, usury, and games of hazard, were severely repressed. All the arts flourished with the new faith; and even now, at the end of three centuries, the people of Béarn pronounce the name of the 'good queen,' who so greatly raised the prosperity of their country, with an affectionate veneration.

"Jeanne d'Albret had many struggles to sustain, and many perils to encounter. The Cardinal d'Armagnac reproached her, in the name of the pope, with having introduced into her dominions a heresy which had committed so many excesses. 'You make me blush for you,' she answered him: 'Take out the beam from your own eye, to see the mote in your neighbour's; cleanse the earth from that just blood which you and yours have shed.'

"In 1563, Pius IV. cited the queen of Navarre to appear before the tribunal of the Inquisition within six months, under pain of forfeiting her crown and her possessions. Jeanne d'Albret complained of this (insult) to all the sovereigns of Europe; and Charles IX., on the advice of the Chancellor l'Hospital, told the pontiff that he was singularly offended at this attempt to withdraw a subject and vassal of the crown of France from her natural judges. Once again the pope gave way. The times of Gregory VII. no longer existed!

"Escaped from this peril, Jeanne d'Albret encountered another. The historian De Thou relates

that the project was conceived at the court of Madrid, of carrying her off with her children, in order to hand her over to the Spanish Inquisition. The wife of Philip II., Elizabeth, a daughter of France, informed her of this intention, and the plot failed.

"If Jeanne d'Albret had been placed on a larger theatre, she might have been the greatest woman of her age. 'She was,' says the Abbé de Labourdur, in his notes on the 'Mémoires de Castelnau,' 'the wisest, most generous, most learned princess of her time; she had in her heart the source of every virtue, and of every great quality.' Agrippa d'Aubigné says also: 'Of woman she had nothing but the sex, her whole soul belonged to manly things, her powerful spirit to vast affairs, and her unconquerable heart to great adversities.'

"Whatever excellence Henry IV. possessed of a chivalrous character, or of love for his people, he inherited from his noble mother, and France must ever associate the name of Jeanne d'Albret with that of the most popular of her kings."

M. Félice gives a noble account of the life and labours of Calvin, and has the courage to disregard the calumnies with which, as in the case of John Knox in Scotland, the enemies of the Reformation have sought to cloud his name. Even with regard to the often repeated charge of the burning of Servetus, apart from the general defence taken from the spirit and usages of the times, according to which in England a century later people were condemned to the stake for witchcraft, the following points are presented in a footnote:—

"There are some remarkable pages of M. Guizot's on this subject in the 'Musée des Protestants célèbres,' art. Calvin. The execution of Michel Servet has furnished the subject of a never-ending discussion. A skilful historian of our time, M. Mignet, has devoted to it a long and learned dissertation. It would be wholly departing from our plan, to enter into these details. We will confine ourselves to the indication of the following points:—1. Servet was not an ordinary heretic; he was a daring pantheist, and outraged the dogma of all the great Christian communities, by saying that the God in three persons was a Cerberus, a monster with three heads. 2. He had been already condemned to death by the Catholic doctors at Vienne, in Dauphiny. 3. The affair was tried, not by Calvin, but by the magistrates of Geneva; and if it be objected, that his advice must have influenced their decision, it must be remembered that the counsels of the other reformed Swiss cantons approved the sentence unanimously. 4. It was of infinite importance to the Reformation, that it should separate its cause clearly from that of an unbeliever like Servet. The (Roman) Catholic church, which this day accuses Calvin of having participated in his condemnation, would have accused him still more, in the sixteenth century, had he solicited for his acquittal."

On the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day some striking remarks are made:—

"If all the circumstances of St. Bartholomew's day be well considered,—the premeditation, the intervention of the King and Court, the snares spread for the Calvinists, the solemn oaths by which they had been brought to Paris, the blood-stained marriage festivities, the dagger put into the hands of the populace by the chiefs of the state, the hecatombs of human victims slain in a time of profound peace, the carnage which ensued for two months in the provinces, and, lastly, the priests and the princes of these priests wading through the blood, and lifting up their hands to give God thanks; if, I say, these circumstances be well considered, the reader will feel convinced that the massacre of St. Bartholomew is the greatest crime of the Christian era since the invasion of the Northmen. The Sicilian Vespers, the extermination of the Albigenses, the tortures of the Inquisition, the murders perpetrated by the Spaniards in the New World, odious as they are, do not involve,

to an equal degree, the violation of every law, human and divine; and, accordingly, from this awful crime have flowed terrible calamities. Individuals may commit crimes which escape punishment in this world; but dynasties, castes, and nations never can.

"The House of Valois became extinct through the poniard of the assassin; and almost all the actors in the proceedings of this day died violent deaths.

"Internally, France languished during the detestable reign of Henry III.; men's manners were ignoble and savage; law was trampled under foot; the license of the League was unbridled; and for five-and-twenty years the kingdom was rent with civil war. Abroad all our ancient and natural alliances dissolved; Protestant Switzerland, Germany, and England either in arms against us, or maintaining a neutrality full of defiance; in fine, France humiliated to such a degree as to accept the protection of the King of Spain, and forced to demean herself at Madrid to procure an army. The great reigns of Henry IV. and Richelieu scarcely restored her to the position in Europe which she had forfeited; and they did restore her to it only by a line of policy the very opposite to that of St. Bartholomew's day.

"What compensation was there then for all these disgraces and misfortunes? There is this one, if any man be inclined to claim it as such. But for these massacres, the professors of the Reformed faith in France, in spite of all the losses they had sustained, would still have formed an imposing minority. Half the nobility in the kingdom would have remained in the bosom of the new communion. It may be doubted whether Henry IV. would have abjured; at all events, the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes would have been an impossibility, and the natural growth of population would alone have given us by this time five or six millions of Protestants in France. St. Bartholomew's day, with its murders and the subsequent emigrations and abjurations, has inflicted on the Reformation a blow from which it has never rallied. Is this a justification of the crime?

"If so, we may venture even to deprive of this satisfaction those who would have the hardihood to take it to themselves. 'The execrable St. Bartholomew's day,' says M. de Châteaubriand, 'accomplished only this, that it made martyrs; it gave an advantage to philosophical ideas over those of religion, which the former have never lost.' Thus, then, we have some millions fewer of Protestants, and many millions more of philosophers than there would otherwise have been; such is the balance-sheet of the St. Bartholomew's massacre. What have the priests gained by diminishing the number of Luther's and Calvin's disciples, and increasing that of the followers of Montaigne and Voltaire! They gained the anti-Catholic reaction of the eighteenth century, the hostilities of the Constituent Assembly, the massacres of the Abbaye, the proscription of '93; and what besides?—the spirit of our own age. A spirit which, passing from France to Italy, has not yet uttered its last word on Catholicism."

Equally just are the reflections on the national results of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. After referring to some of the horrible scenes of the persecution, and the emigration of the proscribed, M. Félice continues:—

"Touched by so great and so noble a misfortune, foreign nations rivalled each other in the display of their sympathy for the refugees. England, Switzerland, Holland, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden, generously met their first wants, and it never appeared more clearly, according to the remark of a contemporary, that the fountain of charity is inexhaustible. The more there was given, the more it seemed necessary to give. Private individuals contended with their governments in the distribution of relief. The fugitives were received with open arms: they were furnished with the means of work, with houses, and even churches; and they repaid this liberal hospitality by the example of

their faith, a life of probity, and an industrious activity that enriched their adopted countries. 'The French Protestants carried to England,' says Lemontey, 'the secret and use of the valuable machinery which has been the foundation of her prodigious fortune, while the just complaint of these exiles cemented the avenging league of Augsburg.'

"It is difficult to fix the number of the refugees precisely. The figures indicated by Vauban have been already noticed. An intendant of Saintonge wrote, in 1698, that his province had lost a hundred thousand Reformers. Languedoc had lost from forty to fifty thousand before the war of the Camisards, and Guienne at least as many. The emigration was proportionably greater still in the Lyonnese and Dauphiny, on account of their proximity to the frontiers. Whole villages were abandoned, and many towns were half deserted. Manufactories were closed by hundreds; certain branches of industry entirely disappeared, and a vast extent of land went altogether out of cultivation.

"Voltaire says, that in the space of three years, nearly fifty thousand families quitted the kingdom, and were followed by hosts of others. A pastor of the wilderness, Antoine Court, estimates the number at eight hundred thousand persons. Sismondi reckons that if the lowest numbers be taken, there remained in France somewhat more than a million of Reformed, and that from three to four hundred thousand established themselves in other countries. M. Capefigue, a writer hostile to the Reformation, who consulted the population tables of the general districts, calculates the emigration at two hundred and twenty-five or two hundred and thirty thousand souls—namely, one thousand five hundred and eighty ministers, two thousand three hundred elders, fifteen thousand gentlemen, and the remainder consisting almost entirely of traders and artisans. It is worthy of remark that the intendants made these returns in the first years of the Revocation, and that they were interested in showing the number of the emigrants to be as small as possible, in order to avoid the reproach of negligence.

"It appears probable that from the years 1669 to 1760, emigration, which was more than once renewed and suspended, according to the alternatives of persecution and repose, drove out of France, without counting those who returned at the end of a few years, four or five hundred thousand persons, who generally belonged to the most enlightened, the most industrious, and the most moral portion of the nation.

"Thirteen hundred refugees passed through Geneva in one week. England formed eleven regiments of French volunteers, and twenty-two French churches rose in London. An entire suburb of that metropolis was peopled by refugees. Holland won back by the emigration more than she had been deprived of by the invasions of Louis XIV., and colonies of Huguenots were founded even in North America, and at the Cape of Good Hope. The name of these and their children has survived everywhere with honour.

"This emigration has been sometimes compared with that of the year 1792; but the difference is much greater than the resemblance. The emigrants of the Revolution had only lost aristocratic privileges; the refugees of the Revocation had been despoiled of their very means of religious and civil existence. The first, at least those who emigrated at the beginning, left their country, because they would not accept the common law of equal rights; the latter, because they were deprived of that common law. The emigration of 1792 was composed of only one class of individuals, who had no other profession than that of arms; the emigration of 1685 comprised all the constituent elements of a people—merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, labourers. Moreover, the refugees founded numerous and useful establishments, of which many yet still remain, while the latter emigrants have nowhere left enduring traces of their passage.

"It is equally difficult to calculate the number of emigrants who perished in the attempts to escape, in party fights, in prison, on the scaffold,

and at the galleys, from the Edict of Revocation to the Edict of Toleration of Louis XVI. Sismondi thinks that the number of those who perished is equal to that of the emigrants; that is to say, according to his calculations, three or four hundred thousand. This amount would seem to be too high. Yet Boulainvilliers assures us that, under the intendency of Lamoignon de Bâville, in the single province of Languedoc, a hundred thousand persons fell victims to a premature death, and that a tenth perished by fire, strangulation, or the wheel. Probably a hundred thousand should be added for the rest of the kingdom in the eighteenth century. Thus two hundred thousand Frenchmen were sacrificed after an edict of pacification, which had lasted nearly ninety years! Such were the new and bloody hecatombs that were immolated upon the altars of intolerance!"

We have taken our quotations from both the English versions of the work, between which there is no great difference of merit, that of Mr. Barnes on the whole being the best; but the edition published by Messrs. Longmans has the advantage of a supplementary chapter contributed by M. Félice, expressly for that translation, bringing down the narrative to April, 1853. The position of the Protestants under the imperial régime is described. The establishment of a central Council of the Churches is a new feature in the history of French Protestantism, the results of which there has not yet been time to perceive. The recognition by the government of the Protestant organization, even though for a time the council be subjected to undue control, may check the persecutions which at the instigation of the Romish priesthood have already commenced in many parts of the country. Under the pretence of preventing meetings for seditious purposes, the assembling of more than twenty persons for divine worship has in many communes been interdicted, a species of intolerance which proves that though the liberty of *cultes* is still nominally retained, the Romish church only waits its opportunity for the more active measures of repression, of which the history of French Protestantism supplies so many dark and disgraceful records. From the present condition as well as the past history of the Reformed Church of France important lessons may be derived for political as well as ecclesiastical use in our own country. It is well, therefore, that M. de Félice's work should be generally known to English readers, being a history of French Protestantism by a writer of learning, piety, and candour.

#### Castile and Andalusia. By Lady Louisa Tenison. Bentley.

In proportion to the number of travellers, more books have of late years been written about Spain than any other country in Europe. Nor is this surprising in a land possessing so many attractions both of nature and of art, so rich in historical recollections and in romantic associations. After all that has been written, there is freshness and interest in the journals, even of passing tourists in the Peninsula. A two years' residence has given Lady Louisa Tenison superior advantages for her book, which contains an account of the present political state of the country, as well as description of the scenery and the works of art, such as are found in works of older date. There is not much novelty to be expected in the accounts of Andalusia or its people; but the lively style of the author will be seen in her account of the famous fair of Seville, which is held annually after the holy week:—

"If people expect to see in an Andalusian fair any resemblance to an English one, they will be grievously disappointed. There are no shows to tempt you to look at wonderful giants, or still more miraculous dwarfs, no monstrosities of any sort are to be found here, no charming booths full of all kinds of pretty things, where you may buy fairings for your friends, and gingerbread for yourself—no; in Andalusia people indulge in less expensive amusements, chiefly in the most economical of all—walking about to see their friends and be seen themselves. The fact is, these are in reality cattle fairs, where horses and cows, sheep and pigs are brought for sale. The Feria de Sevilla is held on a large open space outside the Puerta San Fernando, where in former days the victims of the Inquisition suffered. The view of the walls is very pretty from here, with the Giralda rising above them, and the pinnacles and buttresses of the cathedral surmounted by light and elegant iron crosses, which seem suspended in the air. The whole of this large open space at this festive season swarms with life. The Calle San Fernando, which leads to it, is almost the only long straight street in Seville. On this occasion it is covered with a canvas awning to shelter the passers-by from the burning rays of the sun, and is filled with booths for the sale of all descriptions of dulces and sweetmeats. Just outside the gate is a lottery for the benefit of one of the many charitable associations patronised by the Infanta, where all the rank and fashion of Seville seduce people into purchasing tickets which must prove prizes, and which inevitably turn out to be blanks.

"Close along the walls is the fashionable promenade; here, in the early morning and the cool of the evening, people may be seen parading up and down, and numbers of carriages appear that were never seen before. The crowd is so dense it is hardly possible to move; but this suits the Spaniards, who follow each other backwards and forwards, laughing, talking, and are content. All the gay dresses that can be produced shine on this occasion, the most brilliant flowers are pressed into the service of the jet-black hair, and the dressy white blonde mantilla replaces the ordinary black one.

"Yet after all, the assemblage, in some respects, is very similar to what it would be in any other country. With the exception of the mantilla, all national costume has disappeared from among the upper classes. No dark eyes, speaking unutterable things, flash from under bandit-looking hats with the heavy cloak concealing the figure; no gay bespangled dresses among the ladies. All this is gone. Here and there may be seen some stray Maja, some girl celebrated for her beauty, who in order to attract more attention puts on this now neglected costume. It is a pretty pert-looking dress, but must be worn with a certain 'gracia,' which none but an Andalusian can ever hope to attain. This word is not to be translated; we have no equivalent for it in English, so it is no use seeking for it in the pages of the dictionary. It means a certain sort of indescribable piquancy, a sort of saucy grace, which must be seen to be understood.

"As the Maja moves along she is saluted on every side with compliments and speeches of exaggerated praise, full, however, of poetic originality, which the men bestow on every woman whose dress, face or carriage has anything which pleases them. Such speeches here are no insult, on the contrary, they are a homage which men would almost think themselves rude if they neglected to pay. Numbers of chairs are placed about the promenade, where those who are fatigued with walking can rest and criticise the passing crowd; while many who dislike the trouble of returning to the town during the heat of the day, have tents pitched, where they breakfast, dine, and spend the day, keeping in fact open house during the fair.

"We must, however, turn from the aristocratic portion of the Feria, to the busy scene in which the people take the principal part, and where the peculiarities of Spanish costumes and Spanish manners still linger. This offers the greatest



attraction to strangers. The eye rests first upon a long line of gipsy booths, each decorated with the red and yellow flag of Spain, where these strange people, decked out in all their finery, sit at the doors of the tents, making 'buñuelos,' a compound of flower and water, converted into a paste, and fried in oil. Eating these buñuelos at the fair of Seville, is as indispensable as whitebait at a Greenwich dinner, and every gipsy as you pass, enlarges on the superiority of her own, and invites you to go in and rest in her neatly-arranged tent.

"They are all decked with pink and blue curtains, and clean little tables, where refreshments are to be had and fortunes told, although in this latter proceeding they do not seem to be as accomplished as their 'dark' sisters in England. At night, these booths are lighted up, and thronged with dancers, who remain till a late hour. All around is a chaos of sounds of the most discordant nature, the chattering of the gipsies, the loud talking of the men who are buying and selling, disputing and bargaining, mingling with the multifarious noises proceeding from so many animals all congregated together. The choicest steeds from the renowned plains of Cordoba, fierce bulls from the flat grounds that border the Guadalquivir, troops of mules and of donkeys, of sheep and goats, are scattered about the fair in every direction. The din and whirl is beyond description: it is not with the voice alone that men converse, their hands are as eloquent as their tongues, and their flashing eyes and vehement gesticulations form altogether a scene of confusion, such as in our cool northern lands can hardly be imagined."

The description of the strangers who visit the fair is as graphic and amusing as that of the "Feria" itself, in which, indeed, the people form the greatest show:—

"Numbers of foreigners may be seen forcing their way through the crowd, endeavouring to see everything that is going on: specimens of every nation; the grave and steady German; the light-hearted Frenchman, determined to be amused, entering into everything, utterly regardless what amusement he affords to others so long as he is amused himself; and last of all, about our own countrymen, their independent style of dress rendering them visible at any distance, and the cry of 'Ingles, Ingles!' always greets them as they pass along, as surely as though they bore the word imprinted on their wide-awakes and shooting-coats, their identity being rendered even more unmistakable when they seek to shelter it under the guise of the 'sombbrero calañes' and the 'calesera Andaluz.' And what different shades of character! with what varied feelings are they gazing on the animated scene around! Here are a party of officers from Gibraltar, who have rushed over to 'do' Seville, and the fair, and the Holy Week, and the bull-fights, all in the same breath. There stands another individual, cold and wrapt in his own English formality, looking on solemnly, and wondering how people can be amused with such nonsense; while another putting aside all this grandeur, mixes himself in everything, thinks it all capital fun, and sits down to help the Gitanas in making their buñuelos. Then come some Americans, pitying people for finding so much novelty in a Spanish fair, assuring them if they would only come to the States they would find something worth seeing.

"English ladies, too, were there in abundance, walking up and down amongst their dark rivals, some studying every feature of the scene, and trying to stamp its varied episodes on the pages of their drawing-books. Laughing urchins, their eyes sparkling with mischief, were disputing for the honour of sitting as models; some one appointing himself as guard of honour, and preventing others from inconveniencing the sketcher, quite forgetting he was himself the most intrusive of them all. One Englishwoman, more sentimental than the rest, scarcely heeded the busy scene, so occupied was she in bringing to her mind the dreadful fires of the Inquisition, and vainly striving to ascertain the identical spot where the victims were sacrificed.

A young enthusiast, too, was there, one who was drinking deep of the Castalian spring; but he was out of his element in this bewildering crowd; he sought seclusion and retirement in the poetic realms of Granada, and when we met him again, he was dwelling in the courts of the Alhambra, seeking for what he himself called the 'ungraspable.'"

Of the character of the Andalucians a brief but faithful sketch is thus given:—

"The lower orders are a happy, joyous set of people, abounding in all that wit and repartee for which the Andalucians are so celebrated. They are rather too prone to quarrelling, and are constantly falling victims to their impetuosity, and frequent use of the *narvaja*, which is drawn on the slightest provocation. One day when we were passing by the gate of Triana, a crowd was assembled round a man who had just been stabbed. Some one had dropped a piece of two cuartos—less than a penny—and four or five began scrambling for it; but in the course of the struggle one offended another, the knife was out, and the discussion was soon put an end to. The Andalucians are, however, considered more given to fair play than the inhabitants of the other provinces; the Valencians generally stab behind the back, but here at least they mostly use it face to face.

"Proud and indolent, they are averse to exertion, and are quite willing to sit quietly enjoying themselves, while the inhabitants of Galicia and the Asturias perform the work, and earn the wages. But with all their faults, there is a something about the Andalucians one cannot help liking; there is so much that is amusing, so much natural wit, with a certain sort of poetry attached to it—what they call the '*sal de Andalucía*,' which there is no translating, or explaining in any other language but their own. They are boasters to a degree, and indulge in exaggerations which have become proverbial. They love to sit in the sun with a cigar in their mouths, that indispensable addition to every Spaniard's comfort. A cigar whiles away the time, makes the hours glide smoothly along, and is the faithful companion of all classes: at the *table-d'hôte*, in the diligence, on the promenade, and amid the family circle, he is never without his best friend. It is one of the first things to which ladies must make up their minds to resign themselves, when they undertake to travel in Spain; it is so much a matter of course, that few Spaniards think it necessary even to apologise for smoking in a lady's presence."

To many readers the information given as to the political state of Spain will be new, and will enable them better to understand the brief notices which appear in the columns of the public journals which report the affairs of Europe:—

"The Cortes of Spain, according to the arrangements of 1837, consist of two houses, the *Senado*, and the *Congreso de los Diputados*. The latter are only elected for three years, and can, of course, be dissolved at the pleasure of the Sovereign; but they are obliged to reassemble within three months after the dissolution. The elections are almost always in favour of the government, and are carried on by ballot, which, however, does not contribute either to prevent bribery or intimidation, both being practised to a most extensive degree; for through the immense number of employes, which abound everywhere, ministers possess an overpowering influence, and they exercise it most unblushingly. Nothing can be quieter than the elections; there are no meetings in public, no hustings, where candidates have to win the sweet voices of their constituents, no cheering, no colours, no enthusiasm; people walk into a room, prepared for the purpose, and deposit slips of paper in the urns, the votes having been given apparently in secret; but, notwithstanding, the result of each is as well known as if all had been done openly and in public.

"At the end of the second day the numbers are counted, and the result is proclaimed; but the fortunate candidates have no opportunity of returning

thanks to the free and independent electors, who have placed them in the proud position they occupy; nor even can they make any solemn assertions or declarations, how untruly they intend to devote themselves to their interests, and merit the honour which has been conferred on them. Nothing of all this awaits the member who has been returned to the Spanish House of Commons. He seems to have no peculiar privilege, except that should he be absent from the capital at the time the House meets, he has the power of usurping the place of any person who may have engaged a seat for Madrid in the diligence, or the malle-poste, and occupying it himself, in order that the House may not be deprived of his valuable services.

"The members of the Upper House are nominated by the Sovereign; they are only for life; the Senate consists now of upwards of three hundred members. A senator here does not convey the same idea that a member of the House of Lords does with us; he has not necessarily a title—on the contrary, the great majority have none. There are some *grandees* who are senators, and many '*titulos del reina*,' as they call those titles, whose bearers have not the honour of remaining covered in the presence of the Sovereign. The army, the church, the law, and the navy are represented in the Senate, the military having considerably the majority. The members of the cabinet have seats in both Houses, sometimes attending one, sometimes the other, according to the importance of the business which has to be transacted, but they can only vote in the one to which they belong. The Senate hold their meetings in the old convent of Doña Maria de Aragon, in the plaza of the same name; the church has been converted into the hall of assembly, which is a very handsome room, simply arranged, and seems to be very well adapted to its present purpose. There are several galleries for spectators; the Queen's throne occupies the place where formerly stood the high altar; it is on a raised platform, and in front of it are the chairs and desks of the presidents and secretaries, also the tribune, whence the members speak. Benches run down both sides, and each is provided with a comfortable writing-desk. The senators enter by two side doors, the grand centre one facing the throne being reserved for the Sovereign. They have a very good library, and sundry committee-rooms.

"The day on which we went, all the tribunes were crowded, and an unusually full attendance proclaimed the interest that was felt. There was some delay beyond the appointed hour; but at length the members of the government entered, and the appearance of Bravo Murillo in full uniform announced that he was the bearer of a royal message. One of the secretaries then read a long list of unimportant business, when Bravo Murillo ascended the tribune, and read the decree dissolving the Cortes, and convoking them for the 1st of March. '*Vaya V<sup>d</sup> con Dios*,' we all rose, and so ended this long session of 1852, which had only lasted twenty-four hours.

"Bravo Murillo is not a very distinguished looking person. He was a lawyer, a native of an obscure town in Estremadura, and studied for some years at Seville in the College of the Felipenses, where he is said to have imbibed that leaning towards the clergy which characterised his administration. There were many notabilities present, the Cardinal-Archbishop of Toledo, and one or two other bishops; Narvaez, too, had arrived from his retreat at Loja to mix himself once more in public affairs, little dreaming how soon the orders of exile he had issued against so many would be put in force against himself. Concha and O'Donnell, Conde de Lucena were also among those pointed out to our notice; the former who had been Captain-General of Cuba at the time of the piratical expedition made by Lopez, the latter the representative of a family of whom nearly every member fell in the civil wars of their adopted country. We drove to the *Diputados* afterwards, but everything there was as quiet as though no meeting had taken place.

"The Congreso is a fine building in the Carrera



San Geronimo, with a statue of Cervantes in the plaza in front of it. The hall itself is semicircular, and rather theatrical in its effect, with galleries for the corps diplomatique, and other spectators. There is a stage for the president and his secretaries, and a tribune whence members may address the house if they like; but they seldom avail themselves of the privilege, preferring to speak from their seats. Over the doors are inscribed, in letters of gold, the names of the various martyrs who have suffered death for the cause of the Constitution; and when one reflects on the government they have, and the character of public men in Spain, one feels tempted to think they might have sacrificed their lives in a better cause. The ceiling is painted in brilliant frescoes and very gaudy. The committee-rooms are all very prettily fitted up, the walls done in scagliola, but nothing can be more unsuitable than their general aspect for the transaction of business; they have very much the appearance of a French *café*, and seem as if intended rather for the discussion of a glass of *cau sucré* than of the stern and important affairs of state.

"The day after the Cortes were dissolved, the decree appeared in the 'Madrid Gazette,' proposing a change in the Constitution, rendering it little more than a name, and following in fact in the steps of their neighbours, proposing to hold their sessions with closed doors, &c. To the end of this decree, another was appended, forbidding the press to make any comments upon the measure, which was to be submitted to the Cortes for approval when it met again, as the authorities considered it unwise to allow people's minds to be prejudiced. This, at all events, was honest, and more to the purpose than the idle theory by which the Spanish press is supposed to be at liberty to express its sentiments freely; while every paper, whose opinions do not harmonize with those of the government, is seized, or obliged to withdraw its leading article, in order to be able to keep faith with its subscribers. This occurs now almost every day, and the newspapers appear with the stereotyped heading: 'Nuestro numero de hoy ha sido recogido,' (our number of to-day has been seized.) Scarcely any of these journals escape the amputation of some limb; and the mutilated newspaper is forthwith dispatched to the subscribers, deprived of that portion which would probably have possessed the greatest value in the eyes of the public.

"The measure which attacked the Constitution, proved most distasteful to the military and those who had exercised their energies, defending the throne of Isabel Segunda as a constitutional Sovereign. Difficulties soon arose; the minister of war, who had signed the decree for the banishment of Narvaez, refused to proceed to extremities, and exile a few more refractory generals to the Philippines. The Bravo Murillo cabinet fell, and its chief followed Narvaez to Bordeaux. Some say it bowed to the universal opinion of the country, which triumphed even when the press was silenced; according to others, it fell before the resistance of a small party, whose object would not have been attained had it remained in power. A new government was then formed under Roncali, which outlived the re-assembling of the Cortes but a short period. General Lersundi succeeded, and is still prime minister; but what line of policy will be pursued by the present cabinet remains yet to be developed.

"People, however, must be actuated by higher and better principles, before things can really improve in this unhappy land; they must learn to prefer public to private interests, before there can be an honest or an upright government in Spain. From the highest to the lowest, all are corrupt: the government bribe alike the electors and the elected; taxes are remitted, patronage is dispensed, trade encouraged, every engine that a ministry, backed by hundreds of employés, can command, is set in motion to return the candidate who will be most pliant when elected. People in Spain only seek to obtain office for the advantages to be derived from it, or the benefits that may accrue to their families; in fact, they do not seem to under-

stand there can be a possibility of people seeking office with any other view. That there are exceptions, no one can doubt; but the prevalence of the complaint is too manifest, and the state of public morality has sunk so low, that such peccadilloes are considered as a matter of course, and do not call forth either astonishment or reprehension."

Well may the author exclaim after this statement that "the problem of constitutional government has yet to be solved in Spain."

Although the book is entitled 'Castile and Andalusia,' there are notices of other parts of Spain, and especially of the Moorish province of Granada. Those who have seen the Alhambra are seldom satisfied with attempted descriptions of it. In our own journal of a Spanish tour made some years ago a gap appears, stretching over many a blank page, headed 'The Alhambra,' the purpose of filling up which grew feebler with each remembrance of the glories of the place. Nor does the pencil of the artist lend much aid to the representation of scenes, the interest of which depends so much on the spiritual associations of history and of romance. Whatever genius and art can do for communicating some idea of the place to those who have not seen it, has already been done by the pen of Washington Irving and the pencil of David Roberts. The Crystal Palace at Sydenham will give as truthful an idea of the material wonders of the Alhambra as the ingenious imitations of Owen Jones can achieve. The panorama of Burford depicts other natural features of the western paradise of the Moslems, where the rich vega or valley of Granada is enriched by the streams flowing down from the perpetual snows of the Sierra Nevada. Never elsewhere has the sublime and the beautiful in nature been seen in such marvellous juxtaposition, along with whatever is most remarkable in art and romantic in historical associations. The account of the Alhambra given by Lady Louisa Tenison is of a very matter-of-fact kind, the difficulty being doubtless felt of doing justice to the subject in the brief chapters of a work embracing other topics. The description of Madrid is more within the reach of prose narrative, and the following paragraph gives an admirable idea of the general aspect of the Spanish capital:—

"At length you approach Madrid, and what a country to find in the neighbourhood of a capital! Strange infatuation to select such a site for the seat of government, to abandon for such a desert, places like Toledo and Seville and Valladolid! An undulating country lies before you, bare and bleak as man could see, not a tree, not a habitation, the dark chain of the Guadarramas rising in the distance, and immediately in front a low hill crowned with some large buildings, and tall thin spires, and leaden domes. And this is Madrid, the capital of Spain! It has the appearance of a large village; until you reach the very walls, you see no signs of life: no crowded suburbs warn you of the vicinity of a metropolis; all is dead and desert-like, until you actually enter within the gates of the 'Villa y Corte de Madrid.' La Corte, as it is designated by Spaniards, is to them the very *ne plus ultra* of excellence, the paradise of delight, the centre, not only of Spain, but of the world; and many of them are so infatuated with it, that I heard a Spaniard once say, he was quite sure, that if some of his countrymen were going to Heaven, they would keep one eye still fixed upon Madrid!

"Within, you seek in vain for any stamp of nationality—it is a noble town, and possesses splendid streets and fine buildings, but anything really Spanish or essentially characteristic is not to be found. If the traveller wishes to see Spain, he must seek it in the time-honoured capitals of her ancient kingdoms, where the Tagus flows beneath

the Alcázar of Toledo, where the Guadalquivir reflects the marble palaces of Seville, where Valencia stands amid her far-famed gardens, or Granada rears her Moorish towers in Burgos, Leon, Valladolid, but certainly not here.

"Madrid has, in fact, but one recommendation—it is in the centre of the country—and for the sake of that advantage all else has been sacrificed. Vain endeavours have been made to centralise everything, but it is of no avail—the natives of each kingdom still look upon their own capital with a feeling of partiality. They go to Madrid, but merely because it is the residence of the Court; and there it stands, a capital without commerce, without healthful life, without industry, without anything to support it—dependent for everything on distant places, and giving nothing in return for all that it receives."

The lithographic engravings by which the volume is illustrated, from sketches by Lady Louisa Tenison and Mr. Egon Lundgren, a Swedish artist resident at Seville, are beautifully designed, and have been ably executed under the superintendence of Mr. John F. Lewis. They are fine specimens of lithography, and they are faithful and spirited representations of the scenes. The frontispiece is a picture of the Alhambra, as seen from the esplanade in front of the Church of San Nicolas, on the opposite hill of the Albaycin, from which the most perfect view of both the ancient and modern palaces is obtained, with the Sierra Nevada in the background. The clever woodcuts prefixed and appended to each chapter give good representations of the people and the customs of the country. Altogether it is one of the most pleasing books on Spain yet published.

*Electra. A Story of Modern Times.* By the Author of 'Rockingham.' With Illustrations by Lord Gerald Fitzgerald. Hurst and Blackett.

'ELECTRA' is a story of love and of war, told with cleverness and spirit, which, if it does not convey lessons of importance, will afford as much rational amusement as most novels of the kind. The author writes in a frank lively style, and his sketches, both of scenes and of character, are life-like and entertaining. We are not going to give any outline of the story, but readers of fiction will judge whether 'Electra' is worth their perusal from two characteristic passages which we select as specimens of the author's style. The first refers to the autobiographer's school days at Harrow, where he was a contemporary with Peel and Byron, and tells the following romance of the poet's boyish adventures:—

"The readers of the 'Hours of Illness' may perhaps remember, while they assuredly might be excused for having forgotten, a few short and not very perfect stanzas addressed to 'Mary,' on receiving her picture. Who this early-loved Mary was many have inquired, and some have attempted to determine. A few have conceived that she was none other than Mary Chaworth, the first idol whose recollection, we are told, would ever cause the heart of Childe Harold to throb, in far distant years and climes, at the magic sound of that name alone. Yet less superficial investigators well know that if any such token had ever been imparted by that disdainful Mary to the lame boy, on whose childish folly she would smile with such relentless compassion, the silken lock alluded to must have worn a less golden hue. I will not pretend absolutely to solve the problem, but, what I am about to relate may not be uninteresting to those who have been or may be tempted to agitate this important matter.

"It was during the last quarter of my stay at Harrow that, as I was one day descending the

main street, I heard an irregular step closely following upon mine, and felt an arm cast affectionately around my neck ere the question was addressed to me: 'Where are you going to, old fellow, to Duck Puddle? eh!'

"No, I have bathed once to-day," answered I. "And I twice," said Byron; "so we must strike out some other pastime."

"Shall we walk as far as the turnpike?" "Don't you think that it is confounded hot to go so far, Glenarlowe?"

"Well, perhaps it is. Shall we look in at Gordon's and see if it is true that Mary Falconer is come back?"

"Mary Falconer come back! Who told you that, Glen?"

"I think I heard Staunfield mention something about it last night."

"Then let's go to Gordon's by all means, and see if we can ascertain any particulars."

"I should here state that these Gordons were an elderly and childless couple who sold pen-knives, pencils, and various articles of stationery of such an inferior description that the vendors could scarcely have achieved much notoriety, even in our very limited mart, had it not been for their niece, the accomplished Mary Falconer above alluded to. This young lady had been long conspicuous, even less for her native attractions than for the modesty of her demeanour and for the homely simplicity of her attire. Insensibly, however, ribbons and bows and smiles and glances were introduced, followed by moonlight walks, a silk gown, and finally an abrupt disappearance from the town. Upon this startling event, for which, as evil tongues would have it, the Gordons were entirely unprepared, the little shop was closed for a day or two; but when it was reopened, a steady front was opposed to all inquiries, and the assurance that Mary Falconer was gone on a short visit to another aunt in London freely reiterated. Her absence, thus accounted for, had lasted about seven months, when, on the evening preceding the day to which I am referring, I had heard from Staunfield a report that the village beauty had returned as unexpectedly as she had departed."

"Nothing being more congenial to my views than to ascertain the accuracy of this rumour, I readily accompanied Byron to her well-known abode, which we entered together."

Then follows an account of the proceedings in the shop. The scene in itself is trifling, but is narrated in a light pleasant strain, and will recall to some readers boyish and school-day recollections, to which the author has attached a local habitation and a name. Our next scene is away in the Peninsular war:—

"Long before daybreak we were rudely aroused by the wide-spread word of command, and again all was bustle and confusion until we fell into our appointed array. Fast poured in the murmured whisper of warning that the enemy was already under arms, and that the attack would be renewed at the earliest dawn. The faint daylight came, and its brightening tints disclosed the dark columns already wending their way to their perilous goal. This time, Victor did not attack alone. The oft-tried valour of Sebastiani's division was cast at once into the scale, and, far as the eye could reach through the still hazy twilight, nought could be discerned save the order of battle of the whole advancing army. So impetuous was now the onset on our devoted left, and so overwhelming the forces brought to bear against it, that Sir Arthur's eagle glance soon recognised that the fortunes of the day would be decided on that point. He, therefore, weakened his centre more fully to secure the key of his position; but no sooner was this movement desisted by the enemy, than a general attack was ordered upon the whole of our lines. It now became more hopeless than ever to distinguish what was occurring beyond a few hundred yards from our station ground; but ere the day was far advanced, we were recalled from our speculations respecting its probable issue by a rumour that our cavalry division would soon be required."

The enemy had now ascertained that our entrenched position was not so easily won; and as their serried ranks were first concentrated, then deployed on the level ground beneath us, an opportunity for an effective charge was at length offered to us.

"Now, Glen," said my friend Cressingham, reining back his horse towards mine, "you may draw your maiden sword in earnest. That black-whiskered aid-de-camp of Albuquerque's has just whispered a word into the Colonel's ear which we shall hear more of. The Portuguese will fight well enough, but we must take the lead."

"And so it proved. Close the ranks well, spur up the drowsy chargers who have grown wearier than we are with their inaction, move on steadily to the front of the Portuguese, but cautiously too, until the level ground be reached. We are within the full range of the musketry. How strangely the subtle messenger of death whistles in our ear; but he knows his errand. Down, full upon the saddlebows, drops the doomed trooper's head;—and then the saddle is empty, for the lifeless corpse has been engulfed in the living tide which is flowing onwards. But the gallant steed has not fallen back!—he is rushing stoutly to the conflict with his fellows. What! Cressingham too? So radiant, an instant ago, with the hue of youth and the spirit of the battle-field; now, prostrate on his mother-earth, with a thousand horse-hoofs defacing from his listless remains the last semblance and vestige of his nature. But we cannot pause to think of him, for the plain is reached—the whole division is in a line, and charge! charge! charge! forward! forward! forward! is our sole and oft-repeated cry."

"The very earth is trembling beneath us. Before the devouring whirlwind of our approach the veterans of Villatte and the decimated bands of Ruffin are fast giving way. Strolz's light cavalry would withstand our shock, but it avails not. We have burst their ranks like the tropical gale through the tattered topsail; each foe has vanished, and there is nought but the open plain-land between the resistless 23rd and the high road to Madrid. Oh! that the whole allied forces would but press upon our footsteps, and Spain would be won."

"War, however, has its chances and changes, and too often the death-shriek of defeat is the baneful re-echo of the shout of triumph. The practised eye of Villatte, and the still more rapid glance of Sebastiani had well discerned the grievous error into which our fatal ardour had betrayed us. When we paused to breathe our foaming horses, the first object which we could distinguish, through the rising dust behind us, was the orderly retreat of our Portuguese allies, as they cut their way through the closing lines of the enemy. These were soon reformed, full in our rear, and as their murderous fire opened upon us, Strolz's whole brigade of cavalry fell with full speed upon our flank and front. Gracious Heaven! how can our brave men be now redeemed from this extremity of peril? The ruthless spear of the fierce Pole and the Westphalian troopers' well-practised sword are bearing down upon them with overpowering odds, leaving no refuge open but the fixed bayonet of the infantry, whose continuous volleys are unceasingly thinning the thrice-doomed band. Surrounded—surrounded on all sides—with a whole army thirsting for revenge standing between us and all retreat, all succour, all hope—can it be that—

"THE WHOLE REGIMENT IS LOST?"

"A few hastily exchanged words with my surviving brother officers had led us to determine that our solitary chance of safety lay in a successful charge upon the line of infantry towards which we were returning. We therefore headed our dispirited men for this last desperate effort, but we had first to cast back the horde of Poles which were attempting to enclose us. During the earliest flush of the engagement, I had thrown away my sword, in pursuance of my secret but solemn vow that my accursed right hand should never shed blood again; and severely did I feel the loss of my weapon now that I was called upon to take the most prominent part in the conflict. Still, I moved forward, my men standing manfully beside me, and defending

me from the sabres of the enemy at every extremity of risk to themselves. A French officer, well surrounded, rode fiercely up to me with uplifted sword; but perceiving my defenceless condition, he gracefully saluted with his weapon and struck down the faithful trooper at my side. In a second afterwards, he was himself felled to the ground, and I could feel, through my whole thrilling frame, the trampling of my charger upon his skull. Does the noble animal too recoil from the horror of the ruthless deed, or has he himself received his death-wound from a French bullet? With a terrific shriek, which I had never heard before, and which I have seldom heard since, he reared full upright, and then fell heavily backward upon me. He righted himself, however, rose again, and with the frantic speed of the stricken deer, galloped onwards. God of mercy! my foot has remained rivetted in the stirrup, the leather is tough and firm, and my uncovered head is dashed along the sandy grass-land as if no life or feeling were there.—Have pity, Jesus, my Redeemer! This must be the end—Oh! Florence—Florence!"

This last horrible position is chosen by Lord Gerald Fitzgerald for one of his clever pen-and-ink illustrations, which are quite in keeping with the sketchy off-hand style of the book. The story of poor Redempta, the Spanish gipsy, forms an agreeable feature in the novel, and though there are some wild and improbable scenes, the illusion is tolerably kept up of a true tale of modern times.

*The Grimaldi Shakspeare. Notes and Emendations on the Plays of Shakspeare, from a recently-discovered annotated copy by the late Joseph Grimaldi, Esq., Comedian.*  
J. Russell Smith.

POOR Mr. Collier. The too indiscriminate use of all the Perkins emendations, and the strained commentary and forced approval of many of them, have led to the production of a satire which we fear will go to demolish more of the new readings than have been disposed of by sober criticism. A grim old folio, a mere bundle of dirty leaves, is supposed to have been picked up for two-and-sixpence in the vicinity of Sadler's Wells, and great is the purchaser's joy at finding it to be the 'players' edition of Shakspeare.' Can it be? Yes, it is. In the original handwriting of our great clown, is the inscription, "Joseph Grimaldi, His book; Here we are!" As the discovery was first announced in our columns (*ante*, p. 654), we have a bounden interest in giving it further publicity. The following, in reference to the interpolation of the line in *Henry VI.*—

"To think I fain would keep it makes me laugh," is very fair, and suggestive of caution:

"The only fault, if it be fault, in these emendations, results from the naturally cheerful temper of Mr. Grimaldi: the *vis comica* peeps out ever and anon throughout the volume. Thus, when *Ophelia* is singing her snatches of song,

'How should I your true love know,  
From another one?  
By his cockle hat and staff,  
And his sandal shoon,'

he has altered the verse thus,—

'How should I your true love know,  
From another lady's beau?—  
Oh, by his cockle hat and staff,  
Which when you see will make you laugh.'

"*Ophelia*, probably, in her distracted state of mind, has mixed up in her imagination a real pilgrim, with some absurd representation of the said genus in a *bal masqué*, at which she may have heartily laughed in happier hours. We should, however, have had some objection to receiving this emendation as final had it not been singularly elucidated in the 'Perkins' Shakspeare as edited by Collier, a volume that singularly corroborates



Grimaldi, as the great pantomimist sometimes corroborates it. There, in the midst of a tragic scene of the utmost solemnity, occurs a grotesque line, spoken by the Duke of Gloucester to King Henry, —King Henry VI., Part 2, act ii., sc. 3)—

'K. Henry. Stay, Humphrey, duke of Glo'ster: ere thou go,

Give up thy staff; Henry will to himself

Protector be: and God shall be my hope,

My stay, my guide, and lantern to my feet;

And go in peace, Humphrey; no less beloved,

Than when thou wert protector to thy king.

Qu. Margaret. I see no reason, why a king of years

Should be to be protected like a child.—

God and King Henry govern England's helm:

Give up your staff, sir, and the king his realm.

Glo. My staff?—here, noble Henry, is my staff:

As willingly do I the same resign,

As e'er thy father Henry made it mine:

And even as willingly at thy feet I leave it,

As others would ambitiously receive it.

"The two latter speeches Mr. Perkins imagines, and Mr. Collier declares, ought to be arranged as rhyme by a series of what he terms 'judicious changes,' including an 'important addition,' and so we get the passage thus:—

'Qu. Mar. I see no reason why a king of years

Should be protected, like a child, by peers,

God and King Henry govern England's helm:

Give up your staff, sir, and the king his realm.

Glo. My staff?—here, noble Henry, is my staff:

To think I *faïn* would keep it makes me laugh.

As willingly I do the same resign,

As e'er thy father Henry made it mine.'

"This noble line, which we print in italics, we ought, in Mr. Collier's words, 'to welcome with thankfulness, as a fortunate recovery and a valuable restoration' of a line written by Shakspeare himself!!

"Fortunately the Grimaldi Shakspeare gives another instance of the use of this line, which has hitherto unaccountably been omitted in every edition of the Poet's works, but which must have been a favourite with him. In Prospero's speech, *Tempest*, act v., sc. 1, in which he determines to give up his 'rough magic,' he says—

'I'll break my staff;

Bury it certain fathoms in the earth,

And deeper than did ever plummet sound

I'll drown my book.'

The whole of this passage is properly a stage 'tag,' and ends the simple action of the early part of the scene with four lines of rhyme, thus:—

'I'll break my staff;

To think I *faïn* would keep it makes me laugh,

Bury it certain fathoms in the ground,

Much deeper than did ever plummet sound.'

"We recommend with confidence and pleasure this important restoration of a lost line of England's greatest bard; and so opposed are we to any desire to keep it to ourselves, that we cheerfully offer it to Mr. C. or any other editor of Shakspeare, hoping that no future edition may appear without it."

Another emendation, which has been the subject of much comment, is thus satirized:—

"The famous curds-and-cream emendation of Mr. Perkins (Collier, p. 35), which has excited some stupid ridicule from the thoughtless, is corroborated also by Mr. Grimaldi, who has restored a lost line in another play of the Bard's. In the *Merry Wives of Windsor*, act ii., sc. 3, the Host says to Dr. Caius:—'I will bring thee where Mistress Anne Page is at a farm-house a feasting, and thou shalt woo her. Cried I aim, said I well?' This passage has been thoughtlessly taken as a common conversational phrase well understood by Shakspearian critics. Not so. Mr. Collier has discovered that the error 'is at once set right by the manuscript-corrector,' and he remarks:—'The truth seems to be, that the Host, having said that Anne Page was feasting at a farm-house, in order still more to incite Dr. Caius to go there, mentioned the most ordinary objects of feasting at farm-houses at that time, viz., curds and cream; 'curds and cream' in the hands of the old compositor became strangely metamorphosed into *cried game*—at least this is the marginal explanation in the corrected folio, 1632. The Host, therefore, ends his speech about Anne Page's feasting at the farm-house, by the exclamation, 'Curds and cream! said I well?'

"In the *Winter's Tale*, singularly enough, the

great Joe furnishes us with an important line where one is wanted to complete the sense, and in which this rural delicacy is named. The *Old Shepherd* (act iv., sc. 3) blames *Perdita* for not playing the hostess at the feast as his 'old wife' used to do, who

'—welcom'd all; serv'd all:

Would sing her song, and dance her turn: now here

At upper end o' the table, now i' the middle;

On his shoulder and on his; her face o' fire

With labor; and the thing she took to quench it,

She would to each one sip.'

But 'the thing' itself is never mentioned, and the characteristic prolixity and perspicuity of the speech destroyed by the omission. Happily this can never occur again, unless the copyright act deter poachers from the Shakspeare preserve which our annotated copy makes our own private property. This is the way we have the passage, and we may again hint that it is our own copyright:

'—the thing she took to quench it

Was curds and cream, which in a flowing bowl

She would to each one sip.'

This noble line is unquestionably Shakspeare's, and is another proof added to the many of his simple tastes, and ardent relish for country life and farm-house pleasures, which he always possessed throughout his career; getting money in London merely to spend it in Stratford, and gladly exchanging the metropolitan sky-blue for the curds and cream of the Warwickshire farm-houses, where the last news from London conveyed by his lips would be a welcome return for the primitive delicacies he loved so well. We think it will now be clear that such readings as these must in future appear in all editions of Shakspeare, except those edited by such persons as have 'no right' to use them, and thus 'adhere of necessity to the antiquated blunder, and pertinaciously attempt to justify it.'

As examples of emendations arising from the dropping of types—letters and marks of punctuation, we may quote the following:—

"There is a very curious variation in our copy of the same play, the propriety of which cannot possibly be doubted. The first line, instead of being

'When shall we three meet again?'

is printed thus:—

'When shall we thee meet again?'

or, in other words, when shall we meet again with thee? This seems better grammar than the old reading; though, on the other hand, it may be said that the letter *r* has dropped out at the press. It is easy to account for it in this way, but who is to prove the fact? We repeat that our copy reads *thee*.

"There is another passage in this play, which by the simple omission of a comma has been much altered in its significance. It occurs in the speech of *Ratcliff* (act v., sc. 3), when he abruptly enters the tent of *Richard*, and answers his query 'Who's there?' by

'—'tis I. The early village cock

Hath twice done salutation to the morn.'

"The query, when once put by Kemble, was answered thus:

'My lord 'tis I the early village cock.'

The actor who thus replied has been subjected to much absurd odium. Like many a thinking man, he was in advance of his time. Grimaldi restores the passage, and points it as we print it, omitting the next line, and making all easy. It is in fact an appropriate and beautiful bit, quite in character with the alternation from grave to gay, so characteristic of the great bard, and which was never better displayed than in this instance. *Richard* has started full of the horrible remembrance of the ghosts, and with looks of utmost alarm has interrogated the abrupt intruder; who at once, with amiable presence of mind, reassures the King that 'all is serene' by the cheerful jocularity of his response."

One or two of the suggested emendations are not such as a compositor, but a wit, would have made:—

"In *Henry the Fifth* we have an important amendment: the *Bishop of Ely* declares that—

'—the prince obscur'd his contemplation  
Under the veil of wildness; which no doubt  
Grew like the summer grass, fastest by night.'

The new reading is—

'Grew like a modern gent., 'fastest' by night;'

a much more appropriate line; this abbreviation of the word gentleman being a genuine characteristic of the Shakspearian era.

"There is a passage in *Richard III.* which has hitherto been received as the genuine reading. The '*First Gent.*' says to Gloucester, when he stops the funeral cortège of *Henry VI.*—

'My Lord, stand back, and let the coffin pass.'

A few moments' consideration will show that this cannot be a correctly expressed line. Coffins are denied volition, and he must have used other words to make his meaning clear—such as 'let the bearers pass'—but we are fortunately saved all conjecture, by the true reading appearing in our Grimaldi folio of 1816, by which it appears the entire line as it generally stands is a printer's error. The line of type has dropped out in moving the form (no uncommon occurrence in a printing-office) and the ignorant mechanic, in trying to repair his fault, has made it what it is. This is what it should be:—

'My Lord, stand back, and let the parson cough.'

This new reading fortunately requires no defensive arguments when we remember that the clergyman had been walking bare-headed and slowly through the streets of London; and that common politeness required the '*First Gent.*' to save Gloucester, also a gentleman, from an unguarded approximation to his explosive lungs."

The satirist assures Mr. Collier, in reference to his treasured folio, that he has "no ill-feeling to that humorous work," nor does he wish to rival it. "I only hope that 'Grimaldi' and 'Perkins' may go hand in hand to posterity, as the two ablest of the modern lights which have clarified the darkness of the Swan of Avon."

*Select Metrical Hymns and Homilies of Ephraem Syrus. Translated from the original Syriac. By the Rev. Henry Burgess. Blackader.*

Of the ancient Syriac church literature a large proportion is in metrical form. Learned writers on Christian hymnology have attributed this partly to the flexibility of the language, and partly to the peculiarities of the people. In Antioch, the capital of Syria, the name of Christians first was given. Tradition tells of the foundation of a Christian church by Thaddeus or Thomas, at Edessa, formerly the residence of the Macedonian kings, afterwards celebrated for its schools of learning. Here probably was the Syriac version of the New Testament written, which exerted influence in spreading the new religion through all that region. In the northern parts of the Syrian Mesopotamia a peculiar form of the Aramic dialect prevailed, which has been termed the "Ecclesiastical Syriac," its distinctive features being derived from the introduction of Christian ideas. It is in this dialect that the metrical literature exists, the copiousness and variety of which are known to students of church history. In Syria, as elsewhere, it was the custom from the earliest introduction of Christianity to use hymns, according to the well-known testimony of Pliny in his letter to the Emperor—*Carmen Christo quasi Deo dicere secum invicem*. Eusebius, the historian, in opposing the tenets of Artemon, refers to the ancient psalms and hymns of the brethren, written from the beginning by the faithful, *ψαλμοὶ καὶ ᾠδαὶ ἀδελφῶν ἀπ' ἀρχῆς ὑπο πιστῶν γραφεῖσαι* (Hist. Eccl. B. v. 28). In Syria it is probable that the early Christians introduced into their re-



ligious worship whatever of national customs in relation to music and poetry prevailed around them. The antiphonal or responsive singing of the Hebrew service was adopted, while the varied and popular rhythms of the Greeks would also be used for the inculcation of doctrine or the expression of feeling. We find this to be the case in the earliest authentic records which we possess. Bardesanes the Gnostic is said to have acquired great influence in the second century in Syria by the use of metrical compositions, in which he adapted his heresies to the public taste, and gained for them extensive circulation. Of Bardesanes many remarkable particulars have been collected by Neander in his history, and by Hahn in his monograph, 'Bardesanes Gnosticus Syrorum primus Hymnologus,' published at Leipzig in 1819. After Bardesanes flourished Harmonius, whose poetical powers were also devoted to the spread of doctrines opposed to orthodoxy. Sozomen and Theodoret both ascribe to Harmonius the introduction of the Syrian hymnology; but it is probable that the Greek historians refer merely to the adaptation by Harmonius of some of the Greek measures to the early Syriac poetry. Passing down to Ephraem Syrus, who flourished in the fourth century, between the reigns of Constantine and Valens inclusive, we reach more certain ground, and in the hymns and homilies of Ephraem himself obtain valuable historical notices of the previous Syrian literature. In one of his homilies, written in pentasyllabic metre, he gives an account of Bardesanes:—

"For these things Bardesanes  
Uttered in his writings,—  
He composed odes,  
And mingled them with music;  
He harmonized Psalms,  
And introduced measures,—  
By measures and balances,  
He divided words.  
He thus concealed for the simple  
The bitter with the sweet.  
For the sickly do not prefer  
Food which is wholesome.  
He sought to imitate David,  
To adorn himself with his beauty  
So that he might be praised by the likeness.  
He therefore set in order,  
Psalms one hundred and fifty.  
But he deserted the truth of David,  
And only imitated his numbers."

In a life of Ephraem, by an anonymous author, prefixed to his works, he is first introduced, saying, in a heptasyllabic piece of autobiography—

"I found the book of Bardesanes,  
And was distressed by it continually;  
For it defiled my ears and my whole nature,  
With its offensive blasphemies.  
For I heard in his homilies profane things,  
And things execrable in his songs.  
For if the body rises not  
It will be equal with things accursed!  
If He created the body for corruption,  
And it shall not rise for ever,  
Behold he blasphemes the just One,  
And contemns Divine Providence;  
Ascribing hatred to the Loving One,  
And repressing the hope of immortality.  
I have therefore read again, my brethren,  
The writings of the Holy Ghost;  
And my ears were quickly closed  
Against the impurity of that sinner!"

After quoting various other notices of Ephraem in the works of the later Christian fathers, Dr. Burgess justly observes:—

"These historical accounts harmonize with the facts of the case, as exhibited in Ephraem's own statements, and in his extant writings. In whatever state he found metrical hymnology, and who ever preceded him in the formation of its rules, his genius seized it and applied it for the purpose of influencing the minds of his countrymen, and rescuing holy truth from error and corruption. His predecessors might have been popular, and they might have originated what he only adapted

to his purposes; but their productions have long since ceased to exist, except in traditionary fragments, while his survive, an everlasting monument of fine abilities consecrated to God's service. After all, therefore, it is to Ephraem we must look for what is certain in the history and development of the Syrian religious poetry. We have studied with some diligence all that can be produced as evidence on this obscure subject, and it amounts to no more than this: metrical compositions were used by Bardesanes, but the evidence that he was the inventor of that kind of writing is wanting in clearness. Of Harmonius we know nothing but what is mythical; but in Ephraem we obtain a historical stand point, from which alone a satisfactory survey can be taken of the Syrian hymnology."

Referring to Dr. Burgess's learned and laborious introductory dissertation for an account of the 'Laws of Syrian Metrical Literature,' 'its existing Monuments,' the 'Poetry of Ephraem, and the present translations,' we give two specimens. The first is heptasyllabic, in strophes of four verses:—

"ON THE DEATH OF AN AGED MAN.

"The only-begotten Son whom thou hast loved  
From thy youth to thine old age,  
Will remember thee in Eden,  
Among the upright and righteous.

"Thou wast perfect in thy faith,  
And chaste in thine aspect;  
Behold thy honourable name is diffused  
Among us as a sweet odour.

"Behold thy communion is with the angels,  
And thy memorial in Paradise;  
And with a crown of glory thou art adorned  
In the heavenly Jerusalem.

"The voice which called to Lazarus,  
And to the maid, the daughter of Jairus,  
Will call thee and raise thee up,  
And clothe thee with spotless glory."

One of the most perfectly constructed hymns is the following, in pentasyllabic metre, in strophes of twelve verses, the last verse of each being a doxology. The subject is historical; but evidently adapted for choral performance:—

"THE PRAISES OF NOAH.

"Oh how illustrious was Noah,  
Who excelled in comparison  
All the men of his age;  
For they were wanting in the scale  
When weighed by impartial justice;  
And one soul alone descended in the balance,  
By the armour of innocence.  
They were drowned in the flood  
Who were deficient in weight,  
And he was lifted up in the ark,  
The innocent and honourable one!—  
Glory to Him who took pleasure in him!"

"Noah extended his ministration  
Between two boundaries,  
And described two types;  
He sealed up the time past,  
And entered upon the present:  
And between two generations  
He administered two mysteries.  
He dismissed the men who were before him,  
And invited those who should come after;  
He buried the old race,  
And educated the rising one:—  
Praises be to Him who chose him!"

"Then wandered through the flood  
The ship of him who was lord of all;  
It proceeded from the east,  
And touched upon the west,—  
It flew to the south,  
And reached unto the north;  
Its flying upon the waters  
Prophecied to the dry land,  
And proclaimed that its progeny  
Would be fruitful on every side,  
And become great in every clime:—  
Praises be to its Redeemer!"

"In its course it described  
The standard of its preserver,  
The cross of its shipmaster,  
The helm of its helmsman;  
Who should come and appoint  
A Church in the waters,  
And by the threefold Name  
Should redeem her inhabitants.  
And the Spirit in the form of the dove  
Administered her anointing,  
And the mystery of her redemption:—  
Praises be to her Redeemer!"

"His mysteries in the old covenant,  
And His types in the ark,  
Bear witness one to the other;  
For as were emptied out  
The chambers of the ark,  
So were made empty  
The types of the scriptures.  
He who terminated by His coming  
The mysteries of the law,  
Accomplished in the churches  
The types of the ark:—  
Glory be to Thy Advent!"

"Behold, my mind wanders,  
Having embarked upon the flood  
Of our Redeemer—which is terrible!  
Blessed be Noah,  
Who although his ship,  
Even the ark, floated on the flood,  
Was yet firm in mind.  
Oh Lord, let my faith be  
A ship to my infirmity;  
For behold the daring are sunk  
In the abyss of Thy investigation:—  
Praises be to Him who begat thee!"

Dr. Burgess has made a valuable contribution in this volume both to ecclesiastical history and general literature. The ancient Syriac manuscripts have not hitherto received much notice in this country, though there are many in several of our public libraries, and especially in the British Museum. When so many learned men are devoting their attention to patristic literature, the ancient Syriac hymnology deserves a due share of the study of scholars and of divines. Dr. Burgess proposes to translate and annotate a fine epic poem by Ephraem, on the Repentance of Nineveh, as a companion volume to the Hymns. We trust that the reception of the present book will be such as to encourage him to proceed with a work which will be of unique interest in ecclesiastical literature.

NOTICES.

*Blanche de Bourbon. A Poem.* By William Jones. Saunders and Otley.

MR. JONES has chosen a good subject for his poem, and has made use of appropriate metre. In 'romantic stanza,' after the style of Sir Walter Scott's poetry, he has narrated the story of Blanche, the unfortunate Queen of Castile, the wife of Don Pedro the Cruel. In recommending the book, it is as much from the interest of the subject as the literary merit of the poem. But it is no small praise that the author has given his narrative in a manner which sustains the interest of the reader, and there are passages where fancy is displayed as well as judgment and taste. We give one extract, where Blanche arrives in Spain:—

"From trumpet's blast, and armour's clang,  
Through court and hall the echo rang—  
As, drawing rein, each stately knight,  
Did from his weary steed alight,  
And as the gates they close,  
From the dense crowd, that stood without,  
The hearty cheer, and deaf'ning shout,  
Again—again, arose,  
'Welcome, dearest Blanca, welcome,'  
A gentle voice was heard to exclaim,  
'To our ancient palace, welcome.'  
From every lip the welcome came.  
'Welcome to our royal city,  
Enter these her honour'd halls;  
Hark! loyal hearts loud proclaim thee,  
Her youthful queen Castilla calls.'

"The noise has ceased, the clarion shrill  
Has hush'd its silver sound;  
The crowd are gone, and all is still,  
Save where the lonely sentinel,  
Slow pacing, treads his round,  
In her silent chamber lighted.  
Her maids dismiss'd and gone;  
Blanche de Bourbon now is seated,  
Pale, pensive, and alone.  
Why frequent does the limpid tear  
Start glistening in her eye?  
Why anxious does she thus appear,  
The gushing fount to dry?  
To stanch each welling drop she tried,  
That trickled from his cell;  
But, ere the moisten'd hand had dried,  
Another silent fell.  
Struggling with her inward feeling,  
'Tween grief and wounded pride;  
Striving the weakness o'er her stealing,  
Even from herself to hide,

"What does this mean? Not a kind word,  
Not e'en a message, have I heard,  
To bid me welcome to his land!  
To tell me why his loving hand,  
Could not receive me—that the state  
Compell'd him for a time to wait;  
But that impatient he should soon  
Hasten to meet me—and atone  
For what might now appear neglect;  
Was this too much for me to expect?  
Was it too much for one so young,  
Whose every earthly hope now hung  
On him to whom she'd given her hand—  
For whom she'd left her native land,  
Her happy home, her parents dear—  
Away, away, thou foolish tear,  
Was it too much to think that he  
Was waiting anxiously to see  
The youthful object of his choice—  
To take her hand—to hear her voice?  
Amid the bright and glittering throng,  
How did my yearning bosom long  
To see the form that must for me  
Soon fix my earthly destiny!  
When from the dense and loving crowd,  
The welcome burst so warm and loud,  
How did my grateful heart rejoice—  
How fondly did I think his voice  
Would in gentle accents greet me—  
His dear person warmly meet me!  
How did my trembling anxious ear  
Long from his lips my name to hear."

Most of the characters introduced in the poem are correctly sketched from the traditions and records of history.

*Homiletics; or, the Theory of Preaching.* By A. Vinet, Professor of Theology at Lausanne. Translated from the French. Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark.

The name of the late Professor Vinet, of Lausanne, is justly ranked among the first of modern theologians. His discourses, profound and philosophical, and at the same time earnest and practical, are widely popular in this country and in America, as well as among Protestants on the Continent. Of all his works the treatise on Homiletics, or the theory of ecclesiastical eloquence, is the most systematic, and likely to have the most extensive and lasting influence. Of his work on Pastoral Theology we expressed our opinion at the time of its appearing in an English translation. The present work has the partial disadvantages of being a posthumous publication, but it has been carefully and judiciously edited from his copious manuscripts, compared with various notes taken by those who had the privilege of attending his academical lectures. It is the most complete and systematic work that has yet appeared on the subject, all points of pulpit eloquence being discussed, from the substance and spirit of the matter of discourse, down to the details of style and of elocution. Vinet was a divine who had the highest ideas of the dignity and responsibility of the ministerial office, and he directed the efforts of his powerful and accomplished mind with intelligent zeal to the training of students for the sacred office of the Christian pastorate. The illustrations of his lectures are taken from the stores of classical learning, as well as from the literature of theology and the records of ecclesiastical history. A more important and practical manual of study could not be placed in the hands of those who have to fill the office of the Christian ministry. While Professor Vinet continually impresses upon students the primary importance of an earnestness which is alone the result of personal possession and experience of Divine grace, he points out the advantages to be derived from all the appliances which learning and art can furnish for the statement and enforcement of Christian truth.

*Life of Lord William Russell.* By Lord John Russell. 4th Edition. Longman and Co. In the present edition of Lord John Russell's life of his illustrious ancestor, we are glad to find an acknowledgment of the liberality of the French Government in permitting access to the Barillon correspondence in the national archives. It will be remembered that former applications for this privilege have been repeatedly refused. Lord John Russell accounted for this by saying that "the French gentleman who is entrusted with the care of the archives (Count de Hauterive) from which the charge against the Whigs was made, would not

approve of the political tendency of the refutation." Much of the blame of the illiberality must also rest with Baron Pasquier, then at the head of the French ministry. The present keeper of the archives is M. Mignet, the historian, who with ready courtesy gave every facility to Lord John Russell in his examination. No new facts of importance are obtained from the Barillon papers, in addition to what are already found in the extracts from the dispatches made with faithful accuracy by Sir John Dalrymple. A letter of Louis XIV. to Barillon, not before published, shows considerable shrewdness on the part of the king as to the state of English affairs. The editor adds, that "the letter bears unsuspected testimony to the integrity of Lord Russell." As he is not referred to by name, we suppose that the honourable compliment is contained in the following sentence, where Louis describes the opposition in England as composed of two sections, "l'une composée de gens zélés pour la manutention tant de la religion Protestante que des privilèges et liberté de la nation Anglaise. L'autre, de gens mal satisfaits du gouvernement, et qui agissent plutôt par un pur esprit de cabale." Although the story of these times has been told by Hume and Macaulay, Lord John Russell's book will continue to be consulted for information, if not read for entertainment.

*Risen from the Ranks; or, Conduct versus Caste.* By the Rev. Erskine Neale, M.A. Longman and Co.

MR. NEALE has collected a number of biographical notices of military men of different characters and in various positions, which afford useful practical lessons as well as entertaining reading. The contents of the book, and the leading objects of the several biographies will be seen from the following headings of some of the chapters. The model soldier, Brigadier-General Cureton; merit and success, Sir John Elley; personal bravery, Waterloo Ewart; politics and soldiering, Sir Robert Wilson, M.P.; the hero of three forlorn hopes, brave John Shipp; abuse of opportunities, Major John Semple. Sir Hudson Lowe is described as 'one to whom his contemporaries have been unjust,' a statement which we have fully assented to in our recent review of his published memoirs and correspondence. This is the most agreeable and interesting of the many books which Mr. Neale has compiled. There are several points to criticise in his style, but the works are not of sufficient importance to demand lengthened notice, and the author has the meritorious talent of collecting and narrating miscellaneous facts in a manner well suited for popular reading.

#### SUMMARY.

THE second volume of the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* (A. and C. Black) is completed, bringing the alphabetical dictionary down to the article Anatomy. Many of the papers are the same as in former editions of the work; but on subjects the knowledge of which is progressive, pains have been taken to bring the information up to the period of publication. Thus, the articles on Agriculture and Agricultural Chemistry contain a summary of the modern improvements and researches which have been conspicuous in this department. The first volume contains the Preliminary Dissertations by Dugald Stewart, Playfair, Sir J. Leslie, Sir James Macintosh, and Archbishop Whately. This eighth edition will maintain the high reputation which the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' has long held among works of the class. One hint we throw out to the publishers and editor, that careful attention be paid to the revision of the minor articles, as well as to the production of new papers by distinguished authors. The announcement of the latter is attractive in an advertisement; but for practical purposes of reference it is more important to have correct and recent information, in the ordinary course of articles, by painstaking and intelligent compilers.

In Bohn's 'Antiquarian Library,' the second volume is issued of *Matthew of Westminster's Chronicle*, the first volume of which we lately

noticed (*ante*, p. 743). The *Chronicle* is carried down to the death of Edward I. in 1307. The translation is by C. D. Yonge, who adds occasional notes and a useful index. In Bohn's 'Standard Library,' *Foster's Broadmead Lectures* are published in two volumes, edited by J. E. Ryland. The discourses were originally delivered at Broadmead Chapel, Bristol. To the present edition are appended some sermons on kindred subjects not belonging to that series. The 'Broadmead Lectures' are justly regarded as among the most masterly of John Foster's works, and they are on subjects the most important to which he directed his powerful mind.

Reprinted from the 'Magazine for the Young' are some chapters on flowers, under the title of *The Herb of the Field* (J. and C. Mozley), by the author of 'Langley School,' 'The Kings of England,' and other works for young people. It is a very pleasantly-written book, without pretension to scientific order or detail, but containing nothing contrary to sound botanical knowledge, and recording a multitude of facts and illustrations, such as are likely to inspire at once a taste for literature and a love of field natural history. In the series of 'Readable Books' (Clarke, Beeton, and Co.), are given *Three Tales by the Countess D'Arbouville*, illustrated with numerous wood engravings. The tales are—The Village Doctor, Christine Van Amburg, Resignation. In Bentley's series of 'Standard Novels,' Albert Smith's tale of modern life is published, *The Fortunes of the Scattergood Family*. Most of the sketches are evidently pictures from life, and no author of the day presents more truthfully the manners and customs of the middle classes of Cockayne. The book is redolent of Gravesend and Rosherville, not bad places for a Democritus philosopher, like Albert Smith, to study character.

The parliamentary blue books on Burmah having been carefully studied by Mr. Cobden, he has prepared a digest, with the attractive title of *How Wars are got up in India; or, an Account of the Origin of the Burmese War.* (W. and F. Cash.) Mr. Cobden states that he has not yet been able to meet anybody, in or out of Parliament, who has read the 'papers' ordered to be printed by the House. In this pamphlet, while the abstract is strongly tinged by the peculiar views of the Peace Society, the statements of the author are supported by verbatim extracts from the parliamentary papers and official documents. The general impression on every reader will be, that there has been much misgovernment and mismanagement in connexion with Indian wars generally, and the Burmese affair in particular. Had the pamphlet been written by any other conspicuous public man than Mr. Cobden, it would have commanded greater notice in influential quarters. As it is, it will be too much neglected as a mere Peace Society's manifesto. It is very clearly and ably written. A cheap edition of Mr. Cobden's former pamphlet, '1793 and 1853,' is issued by the same publishers. Proposals for alterations in the English liturgical forms by a clergyman, formerly a member of the Middle Temple, *Services for the Church of God*, on the model of the New Testament, points out how some of the objectionable passages in the Book of Common Prayer may be altered, by the substitution of words from the Scriptures. The intention of the author may be good, but on the subject of baptism the same reply must be given which the Archbishop of Canterbury gave to the memorial last year from three thousand of the clergy on the burial service, that "although he, and the bishops generally, sympathised with the memorialists in the difficulties to which they find themselves exposed, the obstacles in the way of remedying these difficulties appear to them, as at present advised, insuperable."

#### LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Aspinal's (J.) Roscoe's Library, post 8vo, cloth, 2s.  
Bosanquet's (J. W.) Fall of Nineveh, &c., 8vo, cloth, 8s. 6d.  
Caron's (J.) Principles of French Grammar, 12mo, cloth.  
Crowe's (E. E.) Greek and the Turk, post 8vo, 10s. 6d.  
Cruden's Concordance by King, post 8vo, cloth, 5s.  
Cumming's Finger of God, 2nd edition, 12mo, cloth, 2s. 6d.

Cureton's 3rd Part of Ecclesiastical History, &c., £1 12s.  
 D'Arbouville's (Countess) Tales, post 8vo, cloth, 2s. 6d.  
 D'Aubigné's Reformation, Vol. 5, translated by White, 6s.  
 royal 12mo, cloth, 4s. 6d.  
 Fern Leaves from Fanny's Portfolio, crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.  
 Flügel's German Dictionary, 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, £1 4s.  
 Hewlett's (E.) Modern Speaker, 4th edition, 18mo, 3s. 6d.  
 History of Greek and Roman Philosophy and Science, 6s.  
 Jackson's Stores and Catechisms, &c., Vol. 3, 12mo, 3s. 6d.  
 Maguire's (J. F.) Industrial Movement in Ireland, 7s. 6d.  
 Martinelli's Italian-French & French-Italian Dictionary, 9s.  
 Merry Little Tales for Merry Little Hearts, 4to, 2s. 6d.  
 Milton's Poetical Works by Sir E. Brydges, 8vo, cloth, 16s.  
 Mitchell's (S. A.) Family Geography Illustrated, 4to, 6s.  
 Napier's Peninsular War, 6 vols. post 8vo, new edition, £3.  
 Northup's (S.) Twelve Years a Slave, post 8vo, cloth, 6s.  
 Overland (The) Alphabet by Isabel, 4to, sewed, 3s.  
 Pearson's (C. B.) Church Expansion, 12mo, cloth, 3s. 6d.  
 Pusey's Parochial Sermons, 8vo, cloth, Vol. 2, 10s. 6d.  
 Rodwell's Child's First Step to English History, 2s. 6d.  
 Rogers' Bridge of Allan, 2nd edition, 12mo, cloth, 5s.  
 Scenes and Characters, 3rd edition, fcap. 8vo, cloth, 4s. 6d.  
 Schrevelius' Greek and English Lexicon, 8th edit., 10s. 6d.  
 Scott's (W. H.) Interpretation of the Apocalypse, 12s.  
 Spooner's (W. C.) Veterinary Art, post 8vo, sewed, 2s.  
 Tomlinson's Cyclopædia of Useful Arts, Vol. 1, £1 1s.  
 Traveller's Library, No. 47, Turkey and Christendom, 1s.  
 Urquhart's (D.) Progress of Russia, 8vo, sewed, 4s.  
 Wickenden's (Rev. W.) Another Queer Book, 12mo, 5s.  
 Yankee Humour and Uncle Sam's Fun, Illustrated, 1s. 6d.

## BRITISH ARCHEOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

July 25th, Evening Meeting.—The Rev. Thomas Hugo, M.A., read 'Notices of Gundulph and the other Rochester Founders.' "The sight of mouldering ruins, blanched by the storms of centuries, around which society has been changing age after age," he observed, "forces upon us the thought of those who first erected the buildings, of which what we see are the *disjecta membra*, the crumbling though picturesque remains." He then proceeded to give the history of those towards whom our thoughts turn as we tread the ancient city of Rochester, on the structures of which they have left their ineffaceable mark. The materials for this work are, however, but meagre, though the secretary had most diligently laboured to obtain them, and was thereby enabled to present a very interesting picture of the ancient bishops, and to display the excellences of their character and the extent of their learning. Justus, a Roman, was the first bishop consecrated in A.D. 604. He was succeeded by Paulinus, Ithamar, and others. Gundulph, to whom this paper was principally devoted, was twenty-eighth bishop of Rochester, and consecrated by Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 1077. He died in 1108. He was succeeded by Radulphus, and then by Ernulf, who followed in his steps, and exhibited the same activity in architectural undertakings. Of Gundulph, Mr. Hugo drew a masterly picture. His fame as an architect has happily been the cause of our learning so much of him. He was not a writer, and therefore his biography does not occur among the lives of literary men; but it is in the records of monastic life that we must look for the accounts of his varied career. "I may add," said Mr. Hugo, "that that career was just such an one as a monastic chronicler would delight to expatiate about, and in which he would feel himself particularly at home. Worldly sagacity on the one hand, and, on the other, devotion to art, and to the higher and holier duties of his sacred calling, made up indeed a character which no age can contemplate without respect, and which, with all our modern experience and so-called light, would be hard to parallel. I confess myself a warm admirer of this great and eminently practical prelate, and cannot wonder at the enthusiastic admiration in which he was regarded both by contemporaries and successors." The youth of Gundulph gave promise of the future man. He first served in the Church of St. Mary at Rouen, and was such a pattern of excellence as to attract the especial attention of William the Archdeacon, afterwards Archbishop of Rouen. He became a monk, and belonged to the famous Abbey of Bec, and was remarkable for his obedience, zeal, and earnest piety. He was also acute in secular matters, and distinguished in the habits of business, which the government of such an institution imperatively required. Mr. Hugo traced his acquaintance with Anselm, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury,

and portrayed with feeling the close attachment which existed between them. The quiet of Gundulph's cloistered life was interrupted by the departure of Lanfranc, who had been preferred by Duke William to the Abbey of Caen, accompanied by Gundulph, and sharing with him in the government of the house. This engagement, however, did not last long. "William conquered the English army at Hastings, and among the first acts of his reign was the elevation of Lanfranc to the primacy of all England, the Archbishopric of Canterbury. Lanfranc took Gundulph with him to England, not only on account of his *sanctissima religio*, but also for his *prudentissima secularium rerum administratio*. The active and contemplative virtues found each a place in his mind and life, and both had abundant field of operation. A fearful famine was then in England, and Gundulph's hand was the instrument of Lanfranc's charity. His devotion to the victims of this visitation was unbounded, and his humility in all respects such as became his other elevation of character. His friend at Bec did not forget him. Two letters of Anselm, referred to by Mr. Hugo, addressed by Anselm to Gundulph, still exist, which almost breathe the language of woman's love rather than of man's friendship, and show how closely he had wound himself into the affections of his society. He was now to fill a more important position. He became bishop of Rochester. "From this point," said Mr. Hugo, "no longer the agent of another's will, but the carrier out into action of his own, he commenced those various labours which have immortalized his name. He found the church in ruins, the canons reduced to five in number, the lands of the house alienated, or forcibly withheld by powerful nobles. He first altered the constitution of the house itself." He then turned his attention to the building of his cathedral Church. For this he was eminently qualified. Doubtless in his Oriental journey—(he had in his youth travelled to Jerusalem)—he learned not a little both in the way of arrangement and mode of erection. According to the 'Textus Roffensis,' he built new from the very foundation the Church of St. Andrew, which at the time of his arrival was all but in ruins from age, and left it as it now appears. He also built the offices of the Priory, and made the whole as complete as possible. To do this a good deal of money was indispensable, and Gundulph was compelled to resort to legal proceedings against several noble offenders for the money of the lands belonging to the church. Among these are specially mentioned Pichot, Viscount Grandeburgh, and Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, half-brother of the Conqueror, and Earl of Kent. The witnesses of the former, after a long course of litigation, he proved guilty of perjury, and therefore recovered the disputed property, and the latter, with the assistance of his friend the primate, he compelled to disgorge his ill-gotten spoil. From the result of these successful contests, he erected the nave of the cathedral, as we now see it, and the style of which is pure Norman. Besides the nave, there are the remains of a tower on the north side of the church, still called Gundulph's Tower, and evidently, to an architect's eye, of the period under review. Two other ecclesiastical buildings, erected about the same time, of which, however, very little unfortunately remains, claim him for their founder—viz. the Chapel of St. Bartholomew, at Chatham, attached to the hospital for lepers, and portions of Malling Abbey. "But," continued Mr. Hugo, "I must not omit to mention the other architectural works of Gundulph, which have tended to carry down his name to posterity, and to stamp him as the first architect of his age. Two buildings especially deserve notice, as works of which the builder in any age might well be proud. The first is an edifice which has still a world-wide reputation—the White Tower within the Tower of London. Need I add that the other is the very solemn structure which we have visited this day—the castle—a sight of which would make allowable any eulogium in which a lover of Gundulph might wish to indulge." Mr. Hugo then traced various circumstances connected with their erection; de-

picted the transcendent excellence of Gundulph's character, and drew an impressive picture of his last moments. He was buried by Anselm with all the honour becoming his station and deserts, before the Altar of the Crucifixion, at the junction of the nave and choir, where this altar usually stood. On the west front of the north-west tower of the nave there is a very ancient episcopal statue, intended, as it is thought, for Gundulph. It is very much mutilated, but enough remains to show its character. One peculiarity is very striking—viz., the position of the crozier, which crosses the body from left to right. There is no tomb that can with the smallest certainty be identified with him. Gundulph, however, wants no monumental record in Rochester.

To the preceding paper succeeded one, 'On the Houses of our Ancestors in Kent,' by Mr. Charles Baily. We are obliged to confine our account to the general observations contained in this paper, leaving its details for the Society's 'Journal,' with the appropriate illustrations.

"Of the domestic architecture of the Normans," Mr. Baily observed, "we have no example remaining in or near to Rochester, but houses of this early period do still remain in other parts of the kingdom. There is a Norman house at Minster, in the Isle of Sheppey, which belongs to the twelfth century.

"Manor-houses were for the most part small, and generally somewhat square in form, often two stories high, the rooms in the lower part being vaulted. Fireplaces were very few in number; sometimes there was but one in the whole building, and this was in one of the upper rooms. A great peculiarity of these early houses was the absence of an internal staircase: the approach to the upper rooms was from the outside of the house. In the Bayeux tapestry we find the representation of a Norman house such as I have described,—but there is no fireplace nor chimney shown. When fireplaces were introduced, they were often of an ornamental character: we find one at the Jew's House, at Lincoln; and I may perhaps mention the fireplaces of the Castle, in this city. Of the larger Norman houses we have only portions remaining, and it is probable that these partook more of the character of the castle than of the house. Oakham Castle, in Rutlandshire, was built in 1180, but the original hall is all that remains of this date. It is divided into three aisles, by two rows of columns and arches.

"Of Norman staircases, may be mentioned the fine example remaining at Canterbury: each side of this is formed with a screen of ornamental semi-circular arches on columns, supporting a roof: it led to what was the strangers' hall of the convent, and beneath which was the treasury: it appears to have been always an external approach. The same sort of plan continued in the thirteenth century, and at the Temple Farm, at Strood, we find the lower vaulted story of a house of this time remaining. This is a large apartment, now used as a coal-cellar, one bay wide and three in length, and stands lengthways, east and west. The entrance is on the north side of the west bay, and on the south side are still some of the original windows, one of which is quite perfect, very long and narrow, and only ornamented with a narrow splay on the outside edge: it is square-headed, with a small pointed arch above it.

"In the year 1316 one Symond Potyn founded the Hospital of St. Katherine, in the Eastgate, Rochester, and in his will describes himself as 'dwelling in the inne called the Crown, in Saint Clementes, parishes of Rochester.' This description, and the general antique character of the Crown Inn, naturally lead one to inquire if there is in it any architecture of an early character remaining? Portions of the ground-floor and basement are of such a character that we may with certainty consider them as being a part of the residence of the said Symond Potyn, and were probably built in the early part of the thirteenth century.

"On the eastern side of the Crown Inn yard stand some brick buildings now overgrown with



ivy; these contain rooms which are said to be those which were occupied by Queen Elizabeth on the occasion of her visit to Rochester on Sept. 18th, A.D. 1573, when she took up her abode at the Crown Inn for five days. The present stabling is traditionally called Queen Elizabeth's dining-room. In one of the upper rooms is a chimney-piece carved in the style prevalent in the time of James I., and to which period rather than the days of Elizabeth I should feel inclined to date the building.

"Of the houses of the fourteenth century we find many examples in Kent. The hall now became the chief feature of the house: externally it was distinguished by its large gables and high-pitched roof, and internally it was the apartment most in use. In it the owner, his guests and servants ate, drank, and lived; and oftentimes the hall was used by the domestics for sleeping. The hall has often been preserved when the rest of the house has been destroyed. The remains of the great hall of Mayfield Palace, in Sussex, is perhaps the grandest apartment we have remaining of the period. It is not later than the time of King Edward II.: the rich, varied, and elegant tracery of the windows, and the method adopted by the architect to roof over the great span of at least 40 feet from side to side, without the aid of internal columns, must delight every scientific admirer of what is beautiful in architecture. This apartment, about 70 feet long, is divided into three bays, externally by buttresses and internally by two huge arches of stone from wall to wall; on these moulded arches was laid the woodwork of the roof, the timbers of which were exposed to view; these timbers are now gone, but we learn what their forms must have been from the roof of the hall at the Moat House, at Ightham, in Kent. This room is still most perfect; it has the arches of stone as at Mayfield, which support the purlins, kingposts, and rafters of the wooden roof, which appear never to have been altered in any way since the first erection. In this hall the present windows and the fireplace are of later date, having been added to the building in the time of Henry VIII.; one of the original windows of two lights, with tracery in the head and a transome, however, can be traced in the side walls: a building of the fifteenth century having been erected outside of the hall appears to have been the occasion of the alterations I have noticed.

"At the Moat House, at Ightham, there is not much besides the hall remaining of the first foundation; but the fifteenth-century additions are most interesting. The buildings stand round a courtyard; a somewhat wide and deep moat surrounds the whole; the walls rise directly out of the water. The principal entrance to the courtyard is by a gate under a low tower; this gate has been prepared to receive a drawbridge. The house appears to have been built with a view to defence, like most houses erected previous to A.D. 1600. A most interesting part of the house is the chapel, which is placed on the second story. It is of the time of Henry VIII., and is mostly constructed of timber and plaster; it is divided by a screen into nave and chancel, and altogether is in a very perfect state. The ceiling is close boarded, of an arched form, and is painted with what appears to be the several Tudor badges. It is much to be regretted that this very interesting house, on account of its distance from Rochester, cannot be visited by the Society during the present congress. Our members will, however, have an opportunity of viewing a house of the same date—I mean Battle Hall, near Leeds Castle, where there was a roof of the same character as at Mayfield and the Moat, and where there is a curious dark vaulted apartment at the east end of the hall, probably a cellar, with a sort of principal chamber above it, having a fireplace.

"At Nursted, near Gravesend, are some of the remains of the old hall of Nursted Court, said to have been built by Stephen de Gravesend, who was Bishop of London in 1318, and who died in 1338. The predecessors of the present proprietor, Captain William Edmeades, divided this ancient hall into several floors, and erected a modern house against it, so that only a part, but at the same

time sufficient, can be seen to show the construction of this curious relic. The interior of this hall is distinguished by the singular construction of its roof, which, like that of the hall of Oakham Castle, stood on four columns, standing about 4 feet within the walls; but in this case the columns are of wood instead of stone, as at Oakham. From these columns spring arches of timber, upon which rests the immense weight of the roof. The object of the architect has been evidently to relieve the walls from the weight of the roof; and although he has, perhaps, quite succeeded in doing what he wanted, yet the design will in no way whatever compare either in scientific construction or in elegant forms with the fine example at Mayfield.

"The county of Kent contains many houses of the fifteenth century in a pretty perfect state. In very large and spacious houses the plans vary, but the several buildings generally surround one or more quadrangles, as at Penshurst Place, and Hever Castle, Knowle, and several others. Smaller houses were generally planned, however, on one principle, and the form of the plan somewhat resembled the letter I. The hall, which still continued the chief apartment, being in the centre, generally occupied the whole height of the building, as at Mayfield and Penshurst. The chief entrance to the house, which was often beneath a porch, was at one end of the hall; the door to the gardens was opposite to it, the hall being shut off by a screen, thus forming a passage through the building. On the side of this passage, opposite to the end of the hall, was one or two and sometimes three doors, leading to apartments variously used, such as the cellars, kitchens, butteries, &c.

"The buildings at Cobham College, although not exactly to be considered a private house, show this arrangement. The fireplace now began to be introduced into the hall."

Mr. H. G. Adams read a paper 'On Rochester Bridge,' giving a description of the ancient timber bridge across the Medway, of which an engraving may be found in the seventh volume of the 'Archæologia,' accompanied by an account collected from two manuscripts, published in Lambarde's 'Perambulation of Kent.' The date of its erection is uncertain. Regulations and statutes referring to it were in existence at the time of Bishop Ernulph, as quoted by Thorpe. Mr. Adams remarked, that the statement that the arches of this bridge rested upon piers of earth and stone, seems to be contradicted by the discovery of wooden piles, evidently the remains of an old bridge foundation, during the progress of the present works, and the new bridge occupies the site of the ancient one. The piles thus found were many of them shod with iron, and driven far down into the bed of the river, out of which they had to be drawn. Mr. Adams was informed by the overseer of the works, that as much as 660 cubic feet of timber, chiefly oak, was removed in this way, a great portion of it being perfectly sound, and he exhibited a tea-caddy made from a portion of this timber. After a description of the bridge, Mr. Adams proceeded to notice the various documents setting forth provisions for its maintenance, referring to Lambarde, Donne, Kilburne, and other authorities. He then gave a history of the present bridge, and notices respecting the one in the course of formation.

Tuesday, July 26th.—The Association attended the service in the Cathedral, after which they entered the chapter-house, where the canons in residence—the Rev. Dr. Hawkins and the Rev. Mr. Griffith—exhibited the celebrated MSS., the Textus Roffensis and the Custumale Roffense. Upon these Mr. W. H. Black delivered a highly interesting discourse, detailing very particularly the contents of those precious treasures, and pointing out the necessity of a more accurate publication of them (particularly the Textus) than has hitherto appeared. A proposition for the publication of this MS., agreeably to the opinions expressed by Mr. Black, was proposed at this meeting, and has been referred for the consideration of the council. Should the dean and chapter be disposed to enter into the views entertained by the Association, we are likely to receive a very valuable addition to our

historical information. At all events, the substance of Mr. Black's discourse will be found in the 'Journal' of the Association.

The party then attended a lecture, by Mr. Ashpitel, 'On the Architecture of the Cathedral,' and afterwards minutely inspected the edifice under his guidance. For the following digest of Mr. Ashpitel's observations we are indebted to the author.

"The chronicles of Rochester Cathedral give but scanty information respecting it, at least compared with those of some other collegiate bodies. The fabric itself has been much altered, some fifty years back, by men who had good intentions and but little knowledge; and those points which the eye of the architect and antiquary would readily catch in an untouched building had been so changed that the best of all tests is lost. The Cathedral, however, possesses such points, both of curiosity and intrinsic beauty, that I am sure that the most imperfect attempt must create great interest in those who will give any attention to the subject. The bishopric was founded by Ethelbert in the year 600, and Justus was consecrated the first bishop by St. Augustine, in the year 604. No record exists of any mention of the building till the year 725, when Bede—who describes in very feeling terms the death of Bishop Tobias, and praises him as a great scholar, not only in the Saxon and Latin tongues, but, which was rare, indeed, in those times, in the Greek language—says, 'he was buried in the porch (porticus or aisle) of St. Paul the Apostle, which he built within the Church of St. Andrew for his own place of burial.' This is but scanty notice of a church of which we hear no more for centuries. It is true there are many grants of land during this time to the see, but no mention of the Cathedral is at all made. In 991, Ethelred thought proper to commit some serious inroads on the property of the church, and from 1014 to 1058, we have the authority of the great antiquary, Dugdale, who tells us he could not even find a word of who was bishop through this long period. According to the chronicler, Edmund de Hadenham—anno 1057—things were in a most deplorable condition. The Bishop Sigward died almost suddenly, 'leaving the church,' says the annalist, 'in a miserable and empty condition, in want of everything within and without. In it were only four canons, living in a low state, and dressed in plebeian garments.' 'To correct these miseries, the wisest Bishop Lanfranc,' says the chronicler, 'gave the see to Arnost, a monk of Bec.' He only remained there half a year. Lanfranc then appointed that most worthy man, Gundulph, says the chronicler. Of this great man, suffice it for an architect to say he is described by Ernulph, as a man 'most knowing and efficacious' in building work (*cenentario opere*), and that he then states how he built the castle at Rochester. The monk of Rochester gives this account of his progress:—'A very short time having elapsed, a new church, the old being destroyed, is begun, a circle of offices are conveniently disposed. The whole work in a few years, Lanfranc providing much money, was carried out. Therefore all being finished, and from only five canons who were found there, many others being associated, and flowing to the religious garb, the monks increased to the number of sixty and more, under the doctrine of the father Gundulph.' Tradition and later historians have stated he never lived to complete the cathedral, but that it was done by Ernulph. There seems to be some probability in this. The latter, according to the Rochester chronicle and to Edmund de Hadenham, built the dormitory, infirmary, and chapter-house. The fronts of these latter remain, and they partake of the style of the west front, rather than of that of Gundulph. The latter are decidedly of the later Norman; the former of the simpler and earlier. One of the best tests is, perhaps, to compare the work with earlier work, and catch such points as are common to both. Thus, as Byzantine or Romanesque sprang from Roman work, as Norman sprang from the former, and the Pointed styles followed in slow succession these last, so any de-

cided deviation in principle should be considered a probable test of their respective periods. In all Roman or classic architecture, the edge of the arch, the intersection of the face and the soffit, is an arris, or intersection of two plain faces. So it is in older Norman. In the later style it begins to be moulded, till at last there is no flat soffit, but the whole forms one aggregate of massive mouldings. This difference will be clearly apparent on inspecting the two fronts. Not only is this so, but the last pier to the westward in the interior is of larger dimension, and in the triforium there is clearly found the indication of a junction of new work with old. The presumption therefore is, that the tradition is correct, and that Ernulph altered the last bay, or rather lengthened the nave one bay, and erected the splendid west front. This is still further strengthened by the fact that no consecration took place till 1133, when, according to Gervase ('Decem Scriptores'), this office was performed by John, Bishop of Canterbury. Had it been finished in Gundulph's time, it surely would have been consecrated then, instead of waiting eighteen years after his death. Only four years after this, according to De Hadenham, or five years according to Gervase, a fire broke out and consumed the church and city of Rochester, with all the offices of the monks; and four years after, we find the Bishop Ascelin labouring assiduously to repair the damages. In 1177 a second fire took place and burnt, says the annalist, the Church of Rochester and the whole city within and without the walls, on the 3rd of the ides of April. In 1215 there was a worse calamity; King John besieged the castle, in which were the powerful barons, William de Albini and many others. Through some strange neglect or cowardice, Robert Fitz Walter, who laid with the army at London, refused to march to their assistance, and the castle was miserably taken, says De Hadenham, and the church at Rochester so plundered, that there was not a pix left. During this period, however, a strange event took place, which turned the fortunes of the monks, and enabled them to rebuild their church. Before, however, we narrate this, let us consider what the old Norman church really consisted of. The existing nave is clearly that of Gundulph, till within two arches of the transepts. A little to the eastward of the north transept is a fine massive tower—called Gundulph's tower—and this is clearly Norman. We must now descend into the crypt, and there we find work of two periods—one evidently Early English. The other consists of very rude early groins, supported by small plain cylindrical shafts, and heavy cushion-like capitals. So early does this work seem that it has often been called Saxon. The east end of this work is evidently mixed with the Early English—in fact, the extreme east column seems to have been eased with the new pier. My first idea was, that there was a circular or octagonal apsis, but, on setting out the lines, and probing the ground with a borer, nothing of the kind was found. However, on proceeding eastward the distance of two bays more, the foundations of a huge rubble wall were found upwards of eight feet thick. This wall appeared, as far as could be discovered (as there was no opportunity for digging—not to mention a thorough excavation), to form the straight or flat end of the old church—showing the probability that there had been no apsis. On reference to the 'Registrum Roffense,' it was found that Reginald, who was prior in 1154, had made two bells and placed them in the large tower—a clear evidence there had been two towers. Now, as one tower exists at the side of the church, and as there seem to be marks of a large arch in it, the possibility is, that this tower formed part of a species of transept, and that the other tower stood on the north side and matched it, just as the two towers do at Exeter Cathedral. A curious mistake has crept into some books, and that is, that Prior Silvester built the refectory, the dormitory, and the hostelry, and nothing could show in a stronger light the necessity of going to the fountain-head, and consulting the original documents themselves. Only two words are omitted, but

these make all the difference. Silvester did erect the buildings, as stated, but the MS. adds 'at Waletune.' It goes on, however, to say, 'and at Rochester he removed the private house which formerly was attached (*adhæsit*) to the dormitory, and he made two windows in the chapter-house towards the east.' A great number of notices are given of presents of windows. We are then told that 'Thalebot the sacrist made the whole lavatory, and the great cross with Mary and John, and a great 'clocca,' which to the present day retains the name of the aforesaid Thalebot.' Whether by 'clocca' is meant a 'clock' in our sense of the word, or only a bell, seems uncertain. The annalist always uses the word 'campana' to signify the latter. He continues: 'In 1199 Radulphus, the prior, made the brewery, and the great and less chambers of the Prior, and the stone houses in the cemetery, and the hostelry, and the grange in the vineyard, and the grange at Stoke, and the stable; and he caused the great church to be roofed and the greater part covered with lead. Helyas, the prior, led the great church, and that part of the cloister next the dormitory; and he made the lavatory and the guests' refectory. Heymeric de Tunebregge, the monk, made the cloister towards the infirmary; Roger de Saunford, monk and cellarer, made the brewhouse of stone and lime and tiles.' To return: it has been stated that a strange chance had enabled the monks to receive money enough to rebuild their choir, spite of all their former untoward accidents. It occurred that a baker of Perth, who had attained a character for piety and charity, and who was said to give every tenth loaf to the poor, resolved on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. He sold all he had for that purpose, and set off for the continent; passing through Rochester, he stopped there some days, and by his pleasing manners won the good opinion of every one. On his departure, his servant, tempted by the money he carried, attacked him as soon as he went out of the town, and murdered him. His fate caused great sympathy, and his remains were interred in the cathedral. Shortly after, reports of miracles done at his tomb were spread abroad, and increased to that degree that shoals of pilgrims from all parts of the country flocked to his shrine with offerings. The 'Rochester Chronicle' states three things which seem to be very discrepant; first, that Richard Eastgate built the north aisle opposite the gate of S. William; that Richard de Waletune built the south aisle; that William de Hoo built the whole of the choir. Now, that aisles of such a construction could be built without a choir between them seems impossible. But if we reflect that 'ala,' in its primitive form, signifies a transept, and that transepts are very often called cross aisles, the matter seems intelligible. Not only so, it explains a thing which has not been done as yet. The two transepts differ in design: one is at least forty years later than the other. Now, if this interpretation be allowed, the whole is clear. Richard Eastgate, the sacrist, began the north aisle, which was finished by Thomas de Meopham, probably another sacrist; and then, after an interval, we can readily conceive how a third sacrist (or probably a fourth, for William de Hoo was sacrist ere he was prior) erected the other transept in a different style at a later period. This also explains the phrase that William de Hoo built the whole choir. This was finished in 1227, sufficiently to commence the performance of divine worship therein, when the 'Introitus' took place. In 1240 (continues the annalist) the altar in the chapel of the infirmary was dedicated in honour of the blessed Virgin Mary. In the same year (he continues) the church at Rochester was dedicated by the Lord Richard, its bishop, and the Bishop of Bangor, on the nones of November. In 1264 the city and castle were again besieged by the famous Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, and the barons. They were defended by John de Warren and Sir R. de Leybourn. The first day they burnt the barns and out-buildings belonging to the cathedral, which were outside the walls. The next day they burnt the bridge and outer work; they then stormed the city; and in

1331 the bishop visited Rochester, and found the church and buildings to want great repair, and a new refectory and long bakehouse to be built. William de Dene says he gave from his own purse 200*l.* for this purpose, besides 400 marks he had formerly given towards the reparation of the manor and grange houses. In 1343 he caused the new tower of the church at Rochester to be raised with stone and timber, and to be covered with lead. He also gave four new bells to place in the same, whose names are Dunstan, Paulinus, Ithamar, and Lanfranc. In the ensuing year he renovated the shrines of St. Paulinus and Ithamar, at the expense of 200 marks. This is the last mention we have in the chronicles of any buildings at Rochester. This prelate was forced by trouble and persecution to resign his see to the pope, who refused to accept it, and supported him with all his power. It was, however, in vain, and he sank and died a few years after. His works are probably the magnificent doorway into the present chapter-house, and the walls of its lower part; the few decorated windows there are about the south-west transept, and probably the old refectory with its internal passage. The work of the Perpendicular period consists of a chapel called by tradition St. Mary's Chapel, the great west window, some alterations at the east window, the windows of the clerestory, of the nave, and some minor matters. It is reported that at the time of the Reformation the Lady Chapel was thrown into the choir, and the new chapel built *in vice ejus*. If this be so it must have been done by Fisher, but there is no record of any such thing being done. In fact, any removal of a Lady Chapel must have taken place at a time when any rededication to the Virgin would have been extremely improbable. The great west window was probably of the time of Henry VII. We find alterations of this kind in many churches and cathedrals, without name or notice of those who executed them. It seems to have originated thus:—As soon as it was evident that Henry VIII. intended to confiscate the property of the church, it was immediately determined to repair the buildings in every way they could. They considered that there probably would be no funds to keep them up, and so they resolved they would keep off the tooth of time as long as possible; and besides, it lightened the store of money in the treasury, and made every see seem poorer than it was."

The Association then proceeded to view the ancient buildings in Rochester, Strood, and Chatham, mentioned in Mr. Bailly's paper, Temple Farm, St. Catherine and St. Bartholomew's hospitals, &c., and in the evening again assembled to hear several papers, of which we must reserve our notice for the next week.

#### TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

THE New Cambrian Association, 'The National Institute of Wales,' is to hold its first meeting at Brecon, in the week commencing September 12th, simultaneously with the annual meeting of the Cambrian Archaeological Association. The objects of the Institute are the encouragement and diffusion of a knowledge of arts, science, and literature, more especially in their relation to Wales and its marches. There are seven sections—1. History; 2. Geology, Botany, and other branches of Natural History; 3. Welsh Literature; 4. Manufactures, Mines, and the Applications of Science to Mechanical Arts; 5. Agriculture; 6. Topography and Statistics; 7. General Literature. A quarterly journal is to be published by the Institute, containing reports of the proceedings, and miscellaneous notices and papers, with correspondence. For the benefit of the 'Cymro Uniaith,' a Welsh journal of a similar character will also be issued. Among the names of the patrons and office-bearers of the Institute are many learned men, of whom the Principality may well be proud. We need only mention the Lord Bishop of St. David's, the Venerable Archdeacon Williams, F.R.S.E., and Mr. C. C. Babington, F.R.S., to show that the new Association has the sanction of those from whose co-operation the attention of the Institute will be



directed to subjects, which will not only be of local importance, but of general interest to the literary and scientific world.

The mining case at Edinburgh, to which we referred last week, has been decided in the manner that might have been expected from an intelligent Scottish jury. Judgment was found for the defendants, the lessees of the estate, the mineral in question being decided to be coal, according to the ordinary meaning of the word in mining language. The counsel for the defendants made a very able and ingenious speech, in the course of which he made some apposite illustrations. In a contract connected with a whale-fishing voyage, where payments were agreed upon according to the number of fish taken, scientific naturalists might be cited for the purpose of repudiating the bargain, on the plea that a whale is not a fish but a mammal with its legs in its tail. But no jury of upright intelligent men would listen to such pleas, even though scientifically correct. Thus, also, supposing an arrangement involving time from sunrise to sunset, it might be urged by astronomers that this agreement was not valid, because the sun does not rise at all or set at all according to the Copernican theory. Legal documents adopt the language of common use, except where there is specification to the contrary. A strong array of witnesses connected with practical mining and engineering pronounced the mineral to be a coal, and it was considered such in the district itself where the pits were sunk. The minute analyses of chemists, and the hypotheses of unpractical authorities who had no other evidence to offer but their own fancies, could not affect the plain common-sense way in which the matter was understood, even had the scientific witnesses been unanimous. But where so many eminent men of science confirmed the popular view of the case, the jury had no difficulty in coming to a decision. "It is simply," says a geological correspondent, "a peculiar variety of *cannel coal*, and in no sense a bituminous shale, because it is *not shale*, neither does it contain bitumen except as malt contains whiskey—namely, that by certain processes the one can be made out of the other. It has no character of shale whatever. As to the justice of the case, the tenants had for years been working this bed in the adjoining fields as a 'gas coal'; they took the minerals from the disputing landlord under his property, for the express purpose of finding this very bed, with the full knowledge of his agents that that was what they wanted. In that property there is neither any other coal, ironstone, or other mineral whatever, that is worth getting except this very 'Boghead cannel coal,' as it is called; and two years ago, when they had found it, they gave notice that they should continue the lease (according to agreement) solely for the purpose of working that bed, as the only thing worth working."

From the report of the proceedings in the Smyth baronetcy case, at present before the courts of law, it appears that the northern University of Aberdeen exercises as little caution now as it did in the days of Dr. Johnson, when, on the Professors complaining of poverty, they were told "they would get rich by degrees." The claimant of the baronetcy, (Sir) Richard Hugh Smyth, on his examination by Sir Frederic Thesiger, was asked if he had the degree of LL.D. from the University of Aberdeen. He replied that he had, and that it was bestowed in recognition of his literary merits, after having delivered some lectures in the town of Aberdeen on mnemonics and elocution. The Doctor was asked the meaning of the title LL.D., to which he replied, "A doctor learned in the law!" It appeared during the trial that the learned doctor could not spell the most common English words. Being asked to spell "set aside," he gave "sett asside." Whom became whome, and vicissitudes was changed into viscidities. The learned graduate of Aberdeen attempted to repel, but boundlessly increased, the laughter of the court, by taking an antiquarian line of defence, alleging that he could produce authority for his method of spelling, including the use of two p's in rappid. We congratulate the Aberdonian literati on the ingenuity and accomplishments of the rappid or 'fast' graduate. Among

other orthographic novelties the Hon. Mr. Knox was called Lord Nox, which reminds us of the wit of the celebrated Henry Erskine in the General Assembly of the Kirk of Scotland in 1805, in the well-known case of Professor Leslie, when, after a metaphysical speech from a country clergyman of the name of Knox, the lawyer described his bewilderment during a debate in which all appeared to him "Chaos, Nox, and Erebus." If Hugh Smyth makes good his claim to the baronetcy we hope for the credit of literature that he will drop the Doctorate.

Eight unpublished letters of Bossuet, who has been not unjustly called a "Father of the (Romish) Church," were recently discovered in the British Museum by a French literary gentleman, M. Nourison, and they have just been published by him in one of the Paris newspapers. They are not important of themselves, but are of course extremely valuable from having been written by such a distinguished man as the Bishop of Meaux. The subject of two of them is his election to the Académie Française; and of the six others, various small matters. The two were addressed to Conrart, who was a great man in the Academy; the six to Madame de Beringhem, the abbess of a convent. M. Nourison's opinion is, that numerous unknown letters of Bossuet must still exist in public or private collections in England. He bases the opinion on the fact that the prelate corresponded a good deal with Lord Perth, and other personages of distinction; and with the priests and nuns whom Henrietta of France conveyed with her into England:—also that, as he says in one of his published letters, he felt a "tender love for England and Scotland, on account of the number of saints who have flourished in those kingdoms, and of the fine fruits which Faith has there produced. Hundreds of times," he adds, "have I desired the opportunity of labouring for reuniting that great island to the Church, and my prayers never cease to ascend to heaven for it." Perhaps some of our literary archeologists may be able to ascertain whether or no any of the unpublished letters of this great man still remain in this country.

The Rev. R. W. Eyton is preparing for publication a work on the 'Antiquities of Shropshire,' illustrative chiefly of the history of the county during the first two centuries after the Norman Conquest. It is to be published in quarterly numbers, and may be procured of Mr. B. L. Beddow, Bookseller, Shifnal, Salop.

Edward Duller, favourably known in Germany as journalist, historian, romancer, and poet, has just died at the early age of 43. His principal works are a 'History of Maria Theresa and her Epoch,' a 'Life of the Archduke Charles of Austria,' and a 'History of the German People.' He was an Austrian.

Professor Encke, the Astronomer, has been appointed Rector of the University of Berlin, an honourable post, which will be worthily occupied by one who has attained so high a scientific reputation abroad and in his own country.

Mr. Leone Levi has had the honour to receive from the King of Prussia the Gold Medal for Science, in appreciation of his work on the Commercial Law of the World.

An old picture, recently sold at a sale at Bordeaux for a mere trifle (2*l.*), turns out to be by Othon Vanveen (Venus), the master of Rubens. It has since been sold for 1000*l.* It is five feet high and three wide; and the subject is *Abigail going to meet David*.

The new Duke of Saxe Weimar has ordered the castle of Wartburg, in which Luther was secreted after being placed under the ban of the empire, and in which he worked at his translation of the Bible, to be decorated with appropriate mural paintings.

Chevalier Bunsen's 'Hippolytus' figures in the last batch of works denounced as 'damnable and dangerous' by the Congregation of the Index at Rome.

M. de Gerville, an antiquary of note in Normandy, has just died, aged 84.

Roger, the tenor of the Paris Grand Opera is singing with great success at Berlin.

#### PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

ASTRONOMICAL. — June 10th. — G. B. Airy, Esq., President, in the chair. 'Notes on the Experiences of W. S. Jacob, Esq., H.E.I. Co.'s Astronomer, with the new Madras Equatoreal,' by Professor Piazzi Smyth. Having been favoured in my private correspondence with Mr. Jacob during the last year with many particulars of his observations beyond those contained in his recently communicated paper to the Royal Astronomical Society, and as some of these particulars have a high importance when taken in connexion with the observations of other astronomers, recently published in the 'Monthly Notices,' and others again are highly worthy of the attention of good observers during the ensuing season, an immediate publication appears desirable. The instrument employed was an equatoreal, recently added to the establishment of the Madras Observatory by the liberality of the Hon. East India Company, and carrying a telescope with a 6-inch object-glass, of 7.5 feet focus; the magnifying power most frequently used was 270, Mr. Jacob always preferring as low as possible compatible with the matter on hand. The polar axis was of the long English form, with the telescope in the middle, on a short double transit-axis; everything being of metal, by MM. Lerebours and Secretan of Paris. The original order for the instrument was given several years since at a time when it appeared to be thought by the practice of private observers, as well as several public ones, that good telescopes were only procurable at Munich. But in addition to disapproving of the principle of the Munich form of mounting, both Mr. Jacob and myself, to whom he intrusted the order, at that time a private one, had a repugnance to lend any countenance to a monopoly, kept up, generation after generation, not so much by the fair means of superior skill and workmanship as by the unfair means of the conservation of a secret of manipulation. Secrets are radically opposed to the principles of science and the practice of scientific men; and opticians who, in making an object-glass, are profiting by the thousand freely published discoveries of scientific men, are not acting rightly in keeping secret their own single discovery. They even, thereby, retard the improvement of the telescope; for there can be no doubt that were the Munich secret published, it would soon be improved and enhanced by the varied genius and ideas of all other men, just as Daguerre's discovery was so greatly advanced within a few months after its publication, though he had brought it to the ultimate perfection of his own mind, and, as he erroneously thought, the final completion of the thing itself. Even in ordinary trade and manufactures, secretiveness is exploded everywhere, except, perhaps, amongst the most ignorant of uneducated workmen; and a free interchange of ideas as well as commodities is recognised as the surest means of advancement. By no means, then, can concealment be allowed to predominate in the most scientific of all manufactures, and my friend and myself accordingly determined, at least, to try whether a first-rate object-glass could not be procured anywhere else than at Munich. Attracted to MM. Lerebours and Secretan, both by much previous fame, as well as by the lowness of their prices, we found all their instrumental work of the first quality; and though the first object-glass failed, the second, which had been tested at the Edinburgh Observatory previously to being sent out to India, has proved equal, if not superior, to anything which could have been expected, from the published performances of telescopes of equal size by other makers. An approximate trial of the new object-glass was made by Mr. Jacob on its arrival at Madras in August 1852, on several double stars with the following results:— $\lambda$  *Ophiuchi* divided by one diameter of B.  $\tau$  *Ophiuchi* clearly divided. *Antares* companion immediately discovered; its previous detection in America not being then known in Madras.  $\mu$  *Boötis* elongated.  $\zeta$  *Boötis* well divided.  $\delta$  of *Andromeda* sufficiently elongated to get a fair measure.  $\omega$  *Leonis* elongated. No great importance is to be attached to these



observations, as they were hastily made without waiting for any nights of remarkably good definition; and I have no recent measures of the objects by other observers to compare them with; but, on reference to my father's cycle, it will be seen that the object-glass may certainly rank amongst the first, and go forward to a further trial. Such a one is presented by certain features of the planet Saturn, which has been an object of constant observation to some of our best telescopes and most practised observers during the past winter. A planet in general is certainly no accurate test of defining power, unless there be some special test-objects upon it; and the fine division of the outer bright ring of Saturn is exactly this species of proof; and as difficult for the telescope as the fine markings on the 'navicula' for the achromatic microscope. Such a fine division has been from time to time suspected by several observers, but was always so faint, and seen through such a small portion of the circumference, and at so very few and such distant intervals of time, that where its existence was believed in at all, it was thought to be temporary, or at all events to vary in width and consequent visibility. If this be true, the same epoch of time must be employed in the comparison of telescopes, and I limit myself, therefore, to the observations of last winter. The best 6-inch object-glass that Munich has ever produced is probably that in the possession of the Rev. W. R. Dawes, probably also our best observer. By his letters in the 'Monthly Notices,' during the last winter, he appears to have had a faint suspicion of traces of the fine division about the ansæ, but has not subsequently insisted upon it. At the same time, Mr. Lassell, with his splendid reflecting telescope, with its mirrors never better, in the clear climate of Malta, and with the planet at a greater height, represents himself as certain that there is no such division. But at the very same time, Mr. Jacob, with Saturn certainly a few degrees higher, after a very careful adjustment of the focus, immediately saw the fine division, and continued to see it during the seven months of the planet's apparition, on every night he looked, except one or two of bad definitions, with powers varying from 170 to 370. It was seen too, moreover, through more than half the circumference of the ring, and with abundant certainty to admit of micrometer measurement. This certainly appears the most satisfactory account we have ever had of the fine division, especially as the rings are not yet at their maximum inclination; and while it indicates that the notion of the variable breadth of the separation may have been too freely drawn upon, it certainly proves Lerebours' object-glass to give much better definition than Mr. Lassell's speculum, and probably better than Mr. Dawes' Munich object-glass, unless a very wide margin be left for the effect of the different altitudes of the planet at the two places. Amongst many other features in the appearance of the planet, mentioned by Mr. Jacob, are the transparency of the dark ring, and its brown colour by the transmitted light of the planet, which are both mentioned in a letter dated Madras, Oct. 10, 1852, and referring to the appearance of the planet on Sept. 22, 1852. He also mentions a suspicion of a sort of scalloping, like the fold of a curtain, on the inner ansæ of the dark ring, and finds the principal division of the bright ring to be filled with a half-luminous medium, and shaded off so much on one edge as to make the accurate measure of its breadth very doubtful. There can, however, be no doubt of the glasses of the telescope being very transparent, as well as defining well. Mr. Jacob having lately commenced the regular observation of a selection of double stars, with a view to parallax, though with little hope of success; inasmuch as though this was the final object in view, for which they were taken up by Sir W. Herschel and other observers, no one has yet succeeded in finding the desired quantity. Mr. Jacob was, therefore, unexpectedly pleased at finding, towards the end of last year, that the components of a Heraculis showed evident symptoms of parallax.

'Report of the Astronomer Royal to the Board of Visitors.' Read at the Annual Visitation of the

Royal Observatory, Greenwich, 1853, June 4. In this report the Astronomer Royal exhibits the state of the Observatory on 1853, May 22, and records generally the principal occurrences from 1852, May 18, to 1853, May 22. Under the head of 'Grounds and Buildings,' an account is given of the progress of operations for forming a galvanic communication between the Observatory and other places of importance, both in this country and on the Continent. The communication with the various parts of the British isles is maintained by means of wires passing from the Observatory to the South Eastern Railway terminus at London Bridge. With respect to the Continent, this is effected by forming a connexion between the Observatory and the wires of the Submarine Telegraph Company, which pass underground from London to Dover. One of the Company's wires was cut where it crosses Blackheath, and the interrupted segments were continued by branches to a turn-plate, which is contained in an iron box fixed in the south wall of the Park. From this turn-plate a wire is led into the transit circle-room of the Royal Observatory. By different adjustments of the turn-plate, communications are made between London and Paris, between London and Greenwich, or between Greenwich and Paris. This part of the Report concludes with the statement that the Observatory now possesses the means of communicating with every part of Great Britain and of the Continent. The moveable property, the manuscripts, and the library of the Observatory are next noticed in succession. With respect to the manuscripts, it is stated that Professor De Morgan has recently transmitted to the Observatory a considerable number of letters found in the collection of correspondence of the late Mr. Baily. These letters are, doubtless, calculated to throw much valuable light upon the scientific history of the age in which Mr. Baily lived; and on this account they cannot fail to be hereafter consulted with advantage. *Astronomical Instruments.*—The condition of the various instruments is noticed under this head, and appears to be satisfactory. With respect to the recording of transits by the aid of galvanism, the following statement is made:—"The Barrel Apparatus for the American method of observing transits is not yet brought into use. In an apparatus, embodying much that is new (for the circumstances under which we have to try it differ much from those of the original experiments) there must be a great many small alterations; and sometimes from the demand for workmen competent to perform work of this kind, a single alteration has caused more than a month's delay. I have, however, brought it to such a state that I am beginning to try whether the barrel moves with sufficient uniformity to be itself used as the transit clock. This, if perfectly secured, would be a very great convenience; but I am not very sanguine on that point. Much convenience will, however, be gained by making the barrel to move with a speed approaching very near to uniformity, even though the barrel-clock be not quite accurate enough to be used as the best measurer of time in the Observatory, and, therefore, not accurate enough to be used for impressing the second-dots upon the barrel." *Observations.*—No alteration has been made in the general system of meridian observations. The observation of the moon on the meridian is never omitted; that of the sun and planets only on Sundays. The whole number of observations from 1852, May 18, to 1853, May 22, is nearly as follows:—In the transit department: transits, 4037; observations of collimators, 312; observations of transit wire by reflexion, 312; observations of one collimator by the other, 52. In the meridian circle department: observations of all kinds, 4475. The reflex zenith tube has been in active use during the past year. Between May 18 and October 20, 106 single observations have been obtained with it. The Altazimuth has been used in precisely the same manner as in the preceding years. The number of days of complete observations of the moon is 224, or 18 per lunation, against 106 with the transit-circle, or 8½ per lunation. Of the Altazimuth observations, 0 are when the moon passed between 0<sup>h</sup> and 1<sup>h</sup>, 4

between 1<sup>h</sup> and 2<sup>h</sup>, 8 between 2<sup>h</sup> and 3<sup>h</sup>, 8 between 3<sup>h</sup> and 4<sup>h</sup>, 6 between 20<sup>h</sup> and 21<sup>h</sup>, 0 between 21<sup>h</sup> and 22<sup>h</sup>, 1 between 22<sup>h</sup> and 23<sup>h</sup>, 1 between 23<sup>h</sup> and 24<sup>h</sup>. In none of these positions, except on a single occasion between 20<sup>h</sup> and 21<sup>h</sup>, was the moon observed on the meridian. The whole number of separate observations of moon and stars with the Altazimuth is 1003; and the whole number of separate observations of its collimator, 712. The South Equatorial has been used only for images of the solar spots. The Double-Image Micrometer has been employed in executing measures of Venus, Saturn and his rings, and  $\gamma$  Virginis. The reduction and printing of the astronomical observations are next noticed in the Report. The advanced state of the reductions (although not so close as usual, in consequence of a serious diminution of the strength of the establishment arising from the illness of several of the assistants) is attributed chiefly to the order and energy of Mr. Main. Allusion is then made to the operations connected with the magnetical and meteorological departments of the Observatory. *Chronometers, Communications of Time, and Operations for Longitude.*—Under this head various interesting facts are detailed. "The number of chronometers now on hand," it is stated, "is 120. The system of rating the chronometers daily or weekly, as the case appears to require, of reporting the rates to the Admiralty, of rating the trial-chronometers in extremes of heat and cold, of abstracting their rates, of superintending repairs, and of dropping the signal-ball, remains unaltered. In the mechanical part of the operation of rating, an alteration has been made which contributes greatly to convenience, and in some measure to accuracy. At the time of the Visitors' last meeting, a normal clock had been erected by Mr. Shepherd, furnished with a small apparatus suggested by myself (an auxiliary pendulum, which can be made very long or very short, and can in either state be connected with the clock-pendulum), by means of which the indication of the clock can be increased or diminished by any required quantity above 0<sup>o</sup>.01. The error of this clock being ascertained every day, by means of another clock close to its side, which has been compared with the transit-clock, there is no difficulty (with the use of the auxiliary apparatus above mentioned) in making it sensibly correct. This clock keeps in motion a sympathetic galvanic clock in the chronometer-room, which, therefore, is sensibly correct; and thus the chronometers are compared with a clock which requires no numerical correction. I need not insist on the facility, and the freedom from a fruitful source of errors, which are thus obtained. The same normal clock maintains in sympathetic movement the large clock at the entrance-gate, two other clocks in the Observatory, and a clock at the London Bridge Terminus of the South-Eastern Railway (first tried with the assistance of C. V. Walker, Esq., as an experiment, but now to be used for automatically making and unmaking certain connexions of our galvanic wires). It sends galvanic signals every day along all the principal railways diverging from London. It drops the Greenwich ball, and the ball on the offices of the Electric Telegraph Company in the Strand; and the correctness of the last of these operations is tested by means of a galvanic signal-needle upon the case of our transit-clock. All these various effects are produced without sensible error of time; and I cannot but feel a satisfaction in thinking that the Royal Observatory is thus quietly contributing to the punctuality of business through a large portion of this busy country. I have the satisfaction of stating to the Visitors that the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty have decided on the erection of a time-signal ball at Deal, for the use of the shipping in the Downs, to be dropped every day by a galvanic current from the Royal Observatory. The construction of the apparatus is intrusted to me. Perhaps there is no roadstead in the world in which the knowledge of true time is so important." The operations for the determination of longitudes by means of electric signals are then referred to. The details with respect to Cambridge and Edinburgh have been

already mentioned in the lecture of the Astronomer Royal at the last meeting of the Society. With respect to the Oxford Observatory, Mr. Airy stated that the wires for connecting the Observatory with the railway station at Oxford are nearly completed, so that the determination of the longitude of the Observatory by galvanic signals may be expected at no distant date. The galvanic determination of the longitude of the Royal Observatory of Paris and of other continental observatories relative to Greenwich, will constitute the natural sequel to these operations. After a brief allusion to the personal establishment of the Observatory, the author of the Report proceeds to notice the 'Extraneous Computations.' Under this head it is stated that the revision of the Star Results of Dr. Maskelyne is now completed, and a hope is justly expressed that "it will be found that the publication of these deductions will give most valuable information on the state of the sidereal heavens from 1765 to 1807." A proposal is next made respecting the Observations of the Moon. The great work on the Lunar Reductions terminates with the year 1830. The theory employed in computing the tabular places of the moon, with which the results of observation were compared, was mainly that of Plana. In recent years (from the beginning of 1836) the places of the moon deduced from the observations have been compared with the corresponding places in the 'Nautical Almanac,' calculated from Burckhardt's Tables; but, as the latter have been found by Mr. Adams to be sensibly erroneous, in so far as regards the parallax, the Astronomer Royal suggests whether it would not be desirable at once to complete the reduction of the observations and their comparison with tables, from 1831 to 1851; using, as far as possible, in all respects the same bases of reduction of observations and the same elements of tables as in the former Lunar Reductions. The Report concludes with some general remarks relative to the present satisfactory condition of the Observatory.

R. S. OF LITERATURE.—*July 20th.*—Sir John Doratt, V.P., in the chair. Mr. Greenwood's paper, 'On certain Epochal Periods of Papal History,' was concluded. Mr. Greenwood commenced his paper by a careful revision of the theories of the two principal modern writers on Prophecy, Mr. Faber and Mr. Elliott, with regard to that period of 1260 years, "the reign of the Dragon or Antichrist," commonly known as "the prophetic period of St. John." The first of these writers supposed this period to commence with the edict of the Emperor Phocas, A.D. 606, which, he says, conferred on the Bishop of Rome the title of "Universal Bishop." Mr. Elliott, on the other hand, adopts a double commencement for the "Reign of the Beast," dating the first from the edict of the Emperor Justinian, A.D. 533, and the second from the edict of Phocas. The object of Mr. Elliott would seem to be to guard against the uncertainty of any single date; while he, at the same time, contends that about the year 533, the Roman Papacy commenced the adoption of those principles of domination over the "ten kingdoms," which enabled the pontiffs subsequently to establish their universal rule. Mr. Greenwood objects that the number of ten Gothic kingdoms cannot be proved upon any sufficiently historical grounds, either within the area or at the time which Mr. Elliott's theory requires; while there is an ambiguity in the use of the word "Gothic," inasmuch as the Goths were only one branch of the great Teutonic family. Strictly speaking, there were but two "Gothic kingdoms" in existence when Justinian published his decree, A.D. 533. Mr. Greenwood considered next the question whether the edict of Justinian was really intended to confer exclusive powers on the Roman Papacy, and showed that for all practical purposes these powers had been conferred before, by the decree of Theodosius, A.D. 380, by the exertions of Pope Leo the Great, and by the edict of Valentinian III., even though the actual phrase, "Universal Bishop," may not have been used. He also remarked that the Eastern Emperors

were often in the habit of giving to the Patriarch of Constantinople the complimentary title of Œcumenical, or Universal Bishop, while they maintained their own autocratic supremacy; while the Western Emperors, on the other hand, fully admitted the spiritual claim, but withheld the specific title,—a fact which gives more importance to the decree of Valentinian III. than to those of Justinian and Phocas. This view is still more confirmed by the conduct of Pope Leo at the Council of Chalcedon, A.D. 451, at which his legates obtained the first place of honour, while its decrees were drawn up in his name, that especially against Eutyches being signed by his legate in the name of Leo, "Bishop of the whole Church." The general probability seems to be, that the subsequent decrees, which have been exalted by the interpreters of prophecy into epochal changes, were in fact only the results of a compromise between the Eastern and Western churches, each of whom claimed the like universal powers. In conclusion, Mr. Greenwood stated that in his opinion the power of Rome made a greater advance through the agency of Pope Leo the Great, than in any single pontificate previous to the time of Gregory VII., while at no other period was there, on the whole, a more general concurrence of Christendom in the claims put forth by the Roman Pontiff. Mr. Greenwood then noticed several other facts which militate against the theory of the decree of Justinian being the great epochal period, such as the excommunication of the Patriarchs of Constantinople, Antioch, and Alexandria, by Felix III., in A.D. 481, this anathema being issued on the authority of St. Peter and his successor, Felix, "Bishop of the Universal Church," and the subsequent acts of Gelasius, Symmachus, and Hormisdas. Again, the character of Justinian as a legislator is against it. Of his own will he drew up a complete code of laws for the universal church, entering into all the minutiae of doctrine and discipline, &c. &c. Such a ruler may have disregarded, but almost certainly did not intend to promote the power of the Roman bishop. It is clear that Justinian held that the Imperial sanction was necessary to impart the power of law even to ecclesiastical ordinances. Again, a little before the surrender of Rome to Belisarius, the same emperor had aided the recalcitrant bishops of Illyricum Orientale in their attempt to emancipate themselves from the spiritual jurisdiction of Rome. Again, Justinian applies the title of "Head of all the Holy Churches" to the Patriarch of Constantinople as well as the Pope of Rome, which looks very like a compromise. There are other instances of a similar kind. Mr. Greenwood then showed that so far from the decree of Justinian marking a period of advancement in the Papacy, it really denoted one of decline. With regard to the second point of commencement for the 1260 years—viz., the decree of Phocas in A.D. 606—Mr. Greenwood had some doubts as to its genuineness, as it is only found in Paul Warnefrid's 'History of the Lombards,' written more than a century and a half after the event, but, if genuine, the language of it does not impute an exclusive headship to Rome. The following gentlemen were elected members of the Society; Mr. Alderman Salomons, C. Doratt, Esq., W. Jenkins, Esq., and Edmund Oldfield, Esq., Fellow of Worcester College, Oxford.

INSTITUTE OF ACTUARIES.—*Annual General Meeting.*—*July 2nd.*—John Finlaison, Esq., President, in the chair. The Secretary read the following Report of the Council on the progress of the Institute during the past year:—The Council are gratified that they are enabled again to make a favourable report of the progress of the Institute during the past session. It appears that the number of new members elected is thirty-seven, and that the number of withdrawals, including deaths, is seventeen. The total number of members on the books of the Institute is at the present time 264. The decease of Mr. Porter, one of your honorary members, is an event much to be deplored. His loss as a statistician of the highest order will long be felt. The donations to the library

continue to be of a most liberal character; and in addition to the long list of societies interchanging transactions with the Institute, the Council have the satisfaction of recording the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia and the Smithsonian Institution of Washington. In connexion with this part of the subject, it may be mentioned that an Association has been organized in Germany, of the managers of the principal assurance companies there; and that amongst other arrangements it is proposed by them that the manager of the Association should put himself, in that capacity, in communication with the Institute, for general purposes as well as for the interchange of such information as may be useful in the conduct of the periodical which it is part of their plan to establish. As the Council ventured to anticipate in their last Report, the recommendations of the Parliamentary Committee on Friendly Societies proved to be in close accordance with the terms of the petition which the Council had the honour to present. As yet, however, nothing has been done by the legislature in reference to those recommendations. The Council have kept a careful watch over the proceedings in the Parliamentary Committee now sitting on Life Assurance Associations, and it will no doubt be satisfactory to the members to learn that the resolutions come to by them in reference to that inquiry have been placed before the committee, and will be found embodied in the evidence; and the Council are inclined to believe that measures will be recommended by the committee much in accordance with those advocated in the resolutions. The Succession Duty Bill recently introduced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, containing several provisions of a character likely to affect injuriously Life Assurance and Reversionary Interest Companies, and some curious anomalies appearing in the Schedule annexed to the Bill, the Council have addressed the Chancellor on the subject, and are not without hope that the objects which they had in view in doing so may be attained, one of the objectionable clauses having been already amended. The Council have considered it expedient to recommend some slight modifications in the existing laws of the Institute, the effect of which will be best explained when they come to be discussed, and they will not therefore detain the meeting further than to express their satisfaction at the general success which evidently attends their labours; for it cannot, they think, be denied, that a considerable impulse has been given to the cultivation of the Actuary's peculiar knowledge—that indications of improvement, both in theory and practice, are already perceptible—and that the public mind begins to recognise more distinctly the characteristics of a profession, destined, they trust, at no distant day, to assume the position to which its arduous investigations, responsible character, and extensive utility so fully entitle it. An Abstract of the Receipts and Expenditure for the financial year ending the 30th of April last was read, which exhibited an increasing balance at the banker's, notwithstanding that the Institute had during the last year published a Quarterly Journal, which had been distributed gratis among the Members. Some alterations and amendments were then made in the Constitution and Laws of the Institute, and the Meeting proceeded to ballot for the election of President, Council, and Officers for the year ensuing. The following was declared to be the list:—*President.*—John Finlaison, Esq., (late Government Actuary). *Vice-Presidents.*—Edwin James Farren, Esq.; Peter Hardy, Esq., F.R.S.; Holmes Ivory, Esq.; Charles Jellicoe, Esq. *Treasurer.*—John Laurence, Esq.; Wm. Meredith Browne, Esq.; Charles John Bunyon, Esq., M.A.; \*Percy Matthew Dove, Esq.; Frederick Hendriks, Esq.; William Barwick Hodge, Esq.; Jenkin Jones, Esq.; \*John King, Esq.; \*Charles Terrell Lewis, Esq.; \*William Lewis, Esq.; Donald Lindsay, Esq.; George Henry Pinckard, Esq.; \*John Reddish, Esq.; James Michael Terry, Esq.; Robert Tucker, Esq. *Honorary Secretaries.*—Samuel Brown, Esq.; John Hill Williams, Esq.

Those marked thus \* are new Members of the Council.



## FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

Paris, August 10.

A WORK, called 'L'Album de la Société des Gens de Lettres,' figured in the Exhibition at London, and had the honour of attracting the special attention of the Queen. It is magnificently bound, is in parchment, and contains autograph effusions, in prose and verse, of the most noted literary men of France of the present day. Any admirer of modern French literature with a long purse, would render a great service to the Society of the 'Gens de Lettres' by purchasing it. It has been hawked about for sale for years past, but in vain. It was hoped that the Queen of England would have consented to take it, at a Queen of England's price; but her Majesty, notwithstanding the admiration she expressed of it, declined to order it to be placed in her library. The literary fraternity of France are much shocked at the indifference displayed by crowned heads to this marvellous work; and they abuse the age as shamefully sordid and mercantile for not producing, in the absence of imperial and royal potentates, a Mæcenæ capable of appreciating it. But I think we can easily guess why the 'Album' is unsaleable; it is a specimen of French vanity which a really intelligent man would be half-ashamed to patronize. What right, for example, have the modern authors of France to fancy that they are so immeasurably superior to those of Germany and England, or of any other country, as to render it desirable for them to produce specimens of their style and their calligraphy for the admiration of posterity? Surely, however creditable may be their position in the European literature of the nineteenth century, they can hardly be allowed by any impartial judge to have erected to themselves, as Horace did, "a monument more lasting than brass, and higher than the pyramids." Besides this, the 'Album' contains contributions from persons so utterly insignificant, as to make one wonder how the deuce they could imagine themselves entitled to rank in any list of literary worthies,—and, still more, how they could get these pretensions allowed. Who, for instance, out of the pale of the lowest class of circulating-library readers, ever heard talk of M. Elie Berthet? Who can explain in what respect M. Marco de Saint Hilaire is superior to the most ordinary contributors to the monthly magazines of England? Who can help bursting into laughter at seeing such a man as M. Viennet, author of a volume or two of fables, and of some satires which do their best to be better, but fail sadly,—who can help laughing at this worthy gentleman heading a long extract from a condemned and very heavy tragedy, 'Appeal to Posterity'? Moreover, even on the part of men who are really celebrated, we find in the 'Album' specimens of such egregious vanity as to be almost disgusting. Thus, Lamartine, in a piece of verse only thirty lines long, contrives to commit not fewer than three faults in spelling,—he writes *fanée*, *fannée*; *ram-pant*, *repant*; and *liserons*, *lizerons*,—as if, forsooth, the sublimity of his imagination prevented him from descending to such a mean vulgar thing as correct orthography.

You may remember that an attempt was made by the government some time ago to put down the *claque* in the theatres; but it had to be abandoned,—the performers being unable to do without applause, and the public being unwilling, because unaccustomed, to give it. It may not perhaps be generally known that this abuse is the subject of regular commercial engagements, in which considerable sums of money are at stake. Thus, it appears from an action heard a few days ago by one of the courts of law, that the chief *claqueur* of the Théâtre Lyrique, a third or fourth-rate theatre on the Boulevards, paid not fewer than 480*l.* to the manager for his office—he receiving in return a certain number of tickets of admission at reduced prices, and being entitled to get what he could out of the *artistes* for applauding them. But the Court held that in law such a contract is contrary to public order and morality, and that consequently no action can be maintained to enforce it. This decision, however, will not prevent

bartering as heretofore in the noble occupation of *claqueing*.

Economy is not one of the virtues of the new imperial régime. Not content with incurring enormous outlay in all manner of ways and for all manner of things, it seems to take pleasure in reckless expenditure which might and ought to be avoided. For weeks past an entire army of workmen has been employed in redecorating the *salle* of the Grand Opéra. The job was completed a few days ago:—and the theatre was lighted with gas to see the effect produced. The Minister of State went in grand pomp to visit it. He found the decorations not at all to his taste:—these were too grave, those too tawdry:—and, lo! an order was instantly given, and as instantly acted on, that they should all be destroyed, and replaced by others more pleasing to the ministerial eye. I have heard that 6000*l.* at least had been disbursed; but if we reduce the figure one half, the sum needlessly sacrificed will still remain very large.

I noticed, in my last, two or three actions at law which are about to be brought before the Courts, and which excite great interest. Another one, which may turn out to be the most curious of all, may be mentioned.—Shortly after the re-establishment of Imperialism in France, a speculating publisher brought out a volume entitled, 'Poésie à Napoléon III.," consisting of original and selected effusions in honour of the new Cæsar by a score or two *soi-disant* poets. The good gentleman expected that the imperial fervour which reigned at the time would cause the work, aided by the all-powerful influence of the government, to obtain a large sale,—and thereby put a good sum of money in his purse. But the 'poetry' was such execrable trash that it drew forth shouts of derision—and nobody dared to purchase it. Irritated at the ridicule cast upon them, some of the 'poets' represented that the verses had been used without their permission:—and one of them, the once admired, once honoured, but now fallen, Barthélemy, has commenced an action against the publisher to recover damages for the wrong done him in being marched through Coventry with such a ragged set. The publisher, it is said, intends to retort by representing that the man's verses are so horribly bad as to be worth nothing:—and besides that, he, though now a red-hot imperialist, was formerly a flaming republican, then a flaming Orleanist, then a republican again,—that, in short, he has sung in praise of every cause that has succeeded, and that—pays.

## VARIETIES.

*Verulam for Sale.*—On Friday next, Messrs. Page and Cameron are to offer for sale the site of the once famous Roman city of Verulam, near St. Alban's. The estate, we believe, was recently purchased by the Freehold Land Society, who refused to give up the purchase, although Lord Verulam offered them a considerable advance on the cost price:—why or wherefore it is now in the market we cannot say, but the announcement of the re-sale is enough to set all the antiquarians of the kingdom on the *qui vive*. The historical recollections attaching to the place are of more than ordinary interest; the remains of the old Roman walls are very extensive, and where best preserved, a secluded footpath runs along by the side of them. There is a fine view of the abbey and town of St. Alban's from the spot where once the old city stood, at something less than half-a-mile's distance, the river *Ver* flowing along the valley between. The destruction of the still remaining portions of the walls would be a national disgrace, and it is to be hoped that whoever may become the purchaser, will take care that these interesting relics are strictly preserved. Indeed, at no great expense the walls, which are now in many places covered with earth, might be restored to the light of day, and made to possess additional attractions for the locality. The ground where once stood *Verulam* offers tempting opportunities for exploring antiquarians (not many years since the Amphitheatre was discovered, but is now filled up), and those

who prosecuted a search with care and diligence would be amply rewarded for their trouble. Speaking of the site, Camden says, "The situation of this place is well known to have been close to the town of St. Alban's. Nor hath it yet lost its ancient name, for it is still commonly called Verulam; although nothing of that remains besides ruins of walls, chequered pavements, and Roman coins, which they now dig up;" and Aubrey states, "Within the boundary of the walls of this old city of Verulam was Verulam House," (the seat of Lord Bacon,) "about half a mile from St. Alban's, which his lordship built, the most ingeniously contrived little pile that ever I saw." \* \* \* "This magnanimous Lord Chancellor had a great mind to have made it (Verulam) a city again, and he had designed it to be built with great uniformity." We fear there are no enterprising capitalists in the present day willing to restore the city of Verulam, but whoever becomes the possessor, we fervently trust that the place will fall into worthy hands—into the care and keeping of those who will consider it both a personal and a national duty to preserve the lingering remains of Verulam from destruction, and who will zealously and carefully guard the relics which time has left of a place noted when the all-conquering Romans held sway in Britain.—*Herts Guardian*.

*The Noticing of Books.*—Among the most amusing incidents of our editorial life, are the comments which we hear upon notices of books. Sometimes these remarks are addressed directly to us, either orally, or in writing, and sometimes they accidentally reach our ears. Sometimes they please us, and sometimes they annoy us. Sometimes they are sensible, sometimes they are silly. They frequently come from the authors or publishers of books, as often from dealers in and purchasers of the new publications, and not seldom from the reading public. The sentiments of these three classes—those who manufacture, those who trade in, and those who peruse the frequent issues of the press—are very different in their character. They all desire "a first-rate notice" of every work which appears; but their notions as to what that is, are as far apart as the East is from the West. The getter-up of books desires a notice which will make his works sell with rapidity. He delights in the freest use of the superlatives, and would multiply indefinitely all those weighty little adverbs of intensity which have a complimentary tendency. Not so with the reader. He expects that the paper which he takes will understand his taste precisely, and will pass judgment on each work just in accordance with his standards. He does not want a fulsome panegyric of any book. He wants a "discriminating" notice, but one which makes its distinctions from his own point of view.—*New York Literary Gazette*.

## ADVERTISEMENTS.

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NOTICE OF DIVIDEND.—BANK OF DEPOSIT.  
NATIONAL ASSURANCE AND INVESTMENT ASSOCIATION,  
7, ST. MARTIN'S PLACE, TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON.

THE WARRANTS for the HALF-YEARLY INTEREST, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, on the Investment Stock of this Association, due on the 30th June, will be ready for delivery on and after the 9th of July, and will be payable at the Offices of the Association, between the hours of Eleven and Three o'clock daily.

PETER MORRISON, Managing Director.  
Parties desirous of INVESTING MONEY, are requested to examine the plan of the NATIONAL ASSURANCE AND INVESTMENT ASSOCIATION, by which a high rate of interest may be obtained, combined with perfect security to the Depositors. Prospectuses and full information may be obtained at the Office, or will be sent, post free, on application.



# ARGUS LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY,

39, Throgmorton Street, Bank, and 14, Pall Mall.  
 THOMAS FARCOMBE, Esq., Alderman, Chairman.  
 WILLIAM LEAF, Esq., Deputy-Chairman.  
 Richard E. Arden, Esq.  
 Edward Bates, Esq.  
 Thomas Camplin, Esq.  
 James Cliff, Esq.  
 John Humphrey, Esq., Ald.  
 Rupert Ingleby, Esq.  
 Thomas Kelly, Esq., Ald.  
 Jeremiah Filcher, Esq.  
 Lewis Pocock, Esq.

Physician.—Dr. Jefferies, 2, Finsbury Square.  
 Surgeon.—W. Coulson, Esq., 2, Frederick's Place, Old Jewry.  
 Consulting Actuary.—Professor Hall, M.A., of King's College.  
**ADVANTAGES OF ASSURING WITH THIS COMPANY.**  
 The Premiums are on the lowest scale consistent with security.  
 The Assured are protected by an ample subscribed capital—an Assurance Fund of £350,000 invested on Mortgage and in the Government Stocks—and an income of £77,000 a year.

PREMIUMS TO ASSURE £100.			WHOLE TERM.		
Age	One Year.	Seven Years.	With Profits.	Without Profits.	
20	£9 17 8	£19 1	£15 10	£11 10	
25	1 13	2 7	2 5 5	2 0 7	
30	1 5 0	1 6 9	3 0 7	2 14 10	
35	1 11 1	1 19 10	4 6 8	4 0 11	
40	3 2 4	3 17 0	6 12 9	6 0 10	

**MUTUAL BRANCH.**  
 Assurers on the Bonus system are entitled, at the end of five years, and afterwards annually, to participate in four-fifths, or 80 per cent. of the profits.

The profit assigned to each policy can be added to the sum assured, applied in reduction of the annual premium, or be received in cash.

At the first division a return of 20 per cent. in cash on the premium paid was declared; this will allow a permanent reduction in the future annual payments for life of from 24 to 11 per cent., according to the age, and a reversionary increase varying from 4 to 25 per cent. on the premiums, or from 1 to 5 per cent. on the sum assured.

One half of the "whole term" premium may remain on credit for seven years, or one third of the premium may remain for life as debt upon the policy at 5 per cent., or may be paid off at any time without notice.

Claims paid in one month after proofs have been approved.

Loans upon approved security.

The medical officers attend every day at Throgmorton Street at a quarter before two o'clock. E. BATES, Resident Director.

# NORTH BRITISH INSURANCE COMPANY,

4, New Bank Buildings, Lothbury.  
 PRESIDENT—His Grace the DUKE OF SUTHERLAND, K.G.  
 Sir PETER LAURIE, Alderman, Chairman.  
 JOHN I. GLENNIE, Esq., Deputy Chairman.  
 Solicitor—ALEX. DOBIE, Esq.

The benefits of Life Assurance are afforded by this Company to their utmost extent, combined with perfect security in a fully subscribed Capital of One Million, besides an accumulating Premium Fund exceeding £254,000, and a Revenue from Life Premiums alone of more than £108,000, which is annually increasing. Nine-tenths, or Ninety per cent. of the profits, are septennially divided among the Insurers on the participation scale of Premiums. On Insurances for the whole life, half the premium may remain on credit for the first five years.

Tables of increasing Rates have been formed upon a plan peculiar to this Company, from which the following is an extract.

Premium to insure £100 at death.						
Age	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.	Fifth Year.	Remainder of Life.
20	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.
25	0 18 2	0 19 2	1 0 3	1 1 5	1 2 8	1 18 2
30	1 3 9	1 5 2	1 6 8	1 8 4	1 10 0	2 10 5
35	1 11 10	1 13 9	1 15 10	1 18 1	2 0 6	3 8 3

Specimen of the Bonuses added to Policies to 1851, to which will be added a prospective Bonus of one per cent. per annum on the sum insured and previously declared Bonuses, in the event of death before December, 1858, and in which prospective Bonus all new Insurers on the Profit scale will participate.

Date of Policy.	Sum Insured.	Bonuses.	Amount.
1825	5000	£ 8 s. d.	£ 8 s. d.
1825	2000	1925 2 4	6925 2 4
1828	3000	7079 9 9	2779 9 9
		1038 2 4	4038 2 4

Prospectuses, with Tables of Rates, and full particulars, may be obtained of the Secretary, 4, New Bank Buildings, London, or from any of the Agents of the Company.

ROBERT STRACHAN, Secretary, 4, New Bank Buildings.

# UNIVERSITY LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,

ESTABLISHED 1825 BY ROYAL CHARTER,  
 24, SUFFOLK STREET, PALL MALL EAST, LONDON.  
 CAPITAL, £600,000.

PRESIDENT.—His Grace JOHN BIRD, LORD ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

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 The Hon. Baron Alderson.  
 The Hon. and Very Rev. the Dean of Norwich.  
 The Right Hon. the Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer.  
 Edward Komilly, Esq.  
 A. J. Vally, Esq.  
 Thomas Watson, Esq., M.D.  
 Right Hon. J. S. Wortley, M.P.  
 Recorder of London.  
 John Wray, Esq.  
 The Hon. Mr. Justice Maule.  
 The Hon. and Very Rev. the Dean of Norwich.  
 The Right Hon. the Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer.  
 Edward Komilly, Esq.  
 A. J. Vally, Esq.  
 Thomas Watson, Esq., M.D.  
 Right Hon. J. S. Wortley, M.P.  
 Recorder of London.  
 John Wray, Esq.

Nine-tenths of the Profits are appropriated to the Assured.

Proposals for Assurances to be addressed to the SECRETARY, at John Wray, Esq., Chairman of the Committee, 24, Suffolk Street, Pall Mall East, London; or to the Corresponding Directors, Mr. J. Johnson, Esq., M.A., Observatory, Oxford; H. Gunning, Esq., M.A., or Wm. Hopkins, Esq., M.A., Cambridge, from whom Forms of Proposals may be obtained.

CHARLES M. WILLICH, Secretary and Actuary.

# CROWN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY,

33, New Bridge Street, Blackfriars, London.

FOURTH SEPTENNIAL BONUS.

**DIRECTORS.**  
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 WILLIAM WHITMORE, Esq., Deputy-Chairman.  
 John Chapman, Esq.  
 Charles Chippindale, Esq.  
 James Colquhoun, LL.D.  
 R. D. Colvin, Esq.  
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 George H. Hooper, Esq.  
 James Mitchell, Esq.  
 John Nelson, Esq.  
 Octavius Oumanney, Esq.  
 Alexander Stewart, Esq.  
 William Wilson, Esq.

Physician—Wm. Baly, Esq., M.D., F.R.S., 45, Queen Anne Street, Cavendish Square.

Surgeon—John Simon, Esq., F.R.S., 3, Lancaster Place, Strand.

Standing Counsel—Charles Ellis, Esq.

Solicitors—Messrs. Boys, Austen, and Tweedie.

Bankers—Bank of England.

At a DIVISION OF PROFITS on the 27th May, 1853, the sum of £106,008 was assigned to the Assured in Bonuses varying with the ages on Policies of six years' standing, from 22 to 43 per cent. on the Premiums paid within that period; and this sum, with previous appropriations, makes an aggregate of £329,180, as Bonuses added to the sums originally assured, or taken, at the option of the Policy-holders, in reduction of Premiums.

The CLAIMS PAID on death amount to £713,681, and in no one instance, during the twenty-eight years of its existence, has the Company engaged in litigation.

Forms of Proposals, and every information, may be had at the Company's Office, or of any of its Agents in the country.

T. G. CONYERS, Secretary.

# LOANS IN CONNEXION WITH LIFE ASSURANCE.

Individuals possessing real or personal property—officers in the army or navy—clergymen—professional men—merchants—traders—and persons of respectability, may, by assuring with the TRAFALGAR LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION, obtain advances for periods varying from one month to any other period, upon the following securities:—

Upon Freehold or Leasehold Property in England, upon Reversions, Annuities, Sign-manual Pensions, or any other description of assignable property, or income in connexion with Life Assurance.

Upon Personal Security, by the borrower procuring responsible securities to join him in a bond or other security for repayment, and on condition of the life of the borrower, or at least one of his sureties, being assured for a proportionate amount.

# TRAFALGAR LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION.

Capital, £250,000, fully subscribed for by a registered, and most responsible proprietary, consisting of several hundreds of Shareholders. Incorporated by Act of Parliament.—Chief Offices, 40, Pall Mall, London.

The business of this Association embraces the granting of—

1. Life Assurances on healthy, declined, doubtful, or diseased lives.
2. Guarantees for Fidelity of Trust combined with Life Assurance.
3. Immediate and Deferred Annuities.
4. Loans in connexion with Life Assurance on personal and other securities.

The whole of these four important branches of business are transacted by this Association on the most favourable terms.

# GUARANTEE FOR FIDELITY OF TRUST, COMBINED WITH LIFE ASSURANCE.

The Directors of the TRAFALGAR LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION grant policies combining the above objects on peculiarly favourable terms.

# DISEASED, DOUBTFUL, OR DECLINED LIVES.

The Directors of the TRAFALGAR LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION grant Assurances at moderate rates of premium, not only on the lives of persons who have been rejected by other offices, but also on those who may be suffering from Consumption, Asthma, Bronchitis, Pneumonia, Disease of the Heart, Apoplexy, Epilepsy, Disease of the Liver, Dropsy, Scrofula, Gout, Rheumatism, &c. &c.

# AGENCY. The Directors of the TRAFALGAR LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION continue to receive applications from respectable parties (accompanied with references) resident in the various towns in England and Scotland, for the Agency of this Institution.

The Commission allowed is highly remunerative, while the important and numerous branches of business undertaken, afford greater facilities than at most other offices for the exertions of active and influential agents.

The business of this Association embraces the granting of—

1. Life Assurances on healthy, declined, doubtful, or diseased lives.
2. Guarantees for Fidelity of Trust combined with Life Assurance.
3. Immediate and Deferred Annuities.
4. Loans in connexion with Life Assurance on personal and other securities.

Applications for detailed prospectuses, forms of proposal, agencies, and all other information, are requested to be made to THOMAS H. HAYLES, Manager and Secretary.

Chief Offices—40, Pall Mall, London.

N.B. Agents wanted throughout England and Scotland.

# PELICAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY,

Established in 1797.  
 70, Lombard Street, City; and 57, Charing Cross, Westminster.

**DIRECTORS.**

Robert George Barclay, Esq.  
 William Cotton, Esq., F.R.S.  
 William Davis, Esq.  
 Richard Fuller, Esq.  
 Jas. A. Gordon, M.D., F.R.S.  
 Henry Grace, Esq.  
 Thomas D. Hodgson, Esq.  
 Thomas Hodgson, Esq.  
 Henry Lancetoll Holland, Esq.  
 J. Petty Muspratt, Esq.  
 C. Hampden Turner, Esq., F.R.S.  
 Matthew Whiting, Esq.

**NOTICE.**

The present Septennial period, prior to the next Division of Profits, will terminate on the 2nd July, 1854. All Policies now effected (and afterwards continued in force for five years) on the Participating Scale of Premium, will share in the Surplus.

For prospectuses and forms of proposal apply at the Offices as above, or to any of the Company's Agents.

ROBERT TUCKER, Secretary.

# UNITED KINGDOM LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

ESTABLISHED BY ACT OF PARLIAMENT IN 1834.  
 8, WATERLOO PLACE, PALL MALL, LONDON.

HONORARY PRESIDENTS.

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 Lord Leven and Melville.  
 Earl of Norfolk.  
 Viscount Falkland.  
 Lord Elphinstone.  
 Lord Belhaven and Stenton.  
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 Thomas Thorby, Esq., F.S.A.

**MEDICAL OFFICER.**

ARTHUR H. HARRALL, Esq., M.D., 8, Bennett Street, St. James's.

The Bonus added to Policies from March, 1834, to December 31, 1847, is as follows:—

Sum Assured.	Time Assured.	Sum added to Policy in 1841.	Sum added to Policy in 1848.	Sum payable at Death.
£		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
5000	15 yrs. 10 mo.	685 6 8	787 10 0	6470 16 8
*1000	7 years	—	157 10 0	1157 10 0
500	1 year	—	11 5 0	511 5 0

\* EXAMPLE.—At the commencement of the year 1841 a person aged 30, took out a policy for £1000, the annual payment for which is £21 1s. 8d.; in 1847 he had paid in premiums £126 11s. 8d.; but the profits being 24 per cent. per annum on the sum insured (which is £22 10s. per annum for each £1000) he had £157 10s. added to the policy, almost as much as the premiums paid.

The premiums, nevertheless, are on the most moderate scale, and only one-half need be paid for the first five years when the insurance is for life. Every information will be afforded on application to the Resident Director.

# THE ACHILLES INSURANCE COMPANY

FOR LIFE, FIRE, LOANS, AND ANNUITIES.

**DIRECTORS.**

Sir HENRY WINSTON BARRON, Bart., Chairman.

Col. LOTHIAN S. DICKSON, Deputy-Chairman.

Adolphus Baker, Esq.  
 Capt. J. Bishop Culpeper.  
 David Birrell, Esq.  
 Henry Francis Home, Esq.  
 Thomas H. Burrell, Esq.  
 William Vardy, Esq.  
 William Court, Esq.  
 James Tolman, Esq.  
 Edward Miall, Esq., M.P.

Insurances may be effected in the Achilles Company in any way, or for any purpose most convenient to the Assured.

The following are the Rates of Premium on the class of Policies most generally taken out.

Annual Premium for the Assurance of £100 for the whole of Life with Profits:—

Age	25	35	45	55	65
Annual Premium	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
	2 2 6	2 14 5	3 14 9	5 10 9	8 16 3

Premiums may be paid Quarterly, Half-Yearly, or Annually. Annuities, Immediate and Deferred, granted on equitable terms. Loans granted to Policy-holders on real and personal security, and to enable them to purchase their own houses. A Policy of Insurance required to the amount only of the sum borrowed.

Prospectuses, forms of proposal, &c., with every other information, may be obtained at the Company's Office.

25, Cannon Street, City. HUGH TAPLIN, Secretary.

# THE INDISPUTABLE LIFE POLICY COMPANY.

PANTRY, No. 72, Lombard Street, London.

**TRUSTEES.**

Richard Spooner, Esq., M.P.

J. Campbell Rendon, Esq., M.P.

James Fuller Madox, Esq.

Richard Malins, Esq., Q.C.

William Wilberforce, Esq.

The Policies of this Company being indisputable, form Family Provisions and Negotiable Securities, for their validity it is not dependent, as in the case of ordinary Policies, upon the import of previous reports and other documents.

Owing to this important improvement in the practice of Life Assurance, the progress of this Company has been rapid from the commencement of its business, and is steadily advancing.

ALEXANDER ROBERTSON, Manager.

# HOUSEHOLDERS' LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

This Company offers safe and profitable investment for large or small sums of money. The Funds are lent on the security of Freehold and Leasehold Property, in connexion with a Life Assurance, thus superseding Building Societies by providing for the ceasing of the payments in the event of the death of the Borrower.

15 and 16, Adam Street, Adelphi. R. HODSON, Sec.

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desire to call attention to their extensive STOCK of English and Foreign FANCY GOODS, suitable for Presents, comprising Dressing and Writing Cases, Workboxes, Jewellery of every description, Clocks, Watches, Bronges, China, Glass, Alabastrer, Papier maché, Stationery, Bibles, Prayer-books, and thousands of articles in bijouterie and vertu.

FUTVOYE and Co., 154, Regent Street; 8, 11, and 12, Beak Street; and 34, Rue de Rivoli, Paris. Illustrated Catalogues sent free by post on application.

# HOLLOWAY'S PILLS A Specific Remedy for

Nervousness, Lowness of Spirits, and General Debility.—Mrs. Mary Walters, of the Woodside, near Dudley, had been a sufferer for several years from lowness of spirits and nervousness, together with settled pains in the head and stomach, arising from indigestion, and notwithstanding the various remedies tried she obtained no relief. In a state of mind bordering on despair she embraced the opportunity of taking Holloway's Pills, which were given to her by a benevolent lady, and this excellent medicine had so good an effect that she was induced to continue them for a short time, which resulted in her being restored to health.

Sold by all Druggists, and at Professor Holloway's Establishment, 244, Strand, London.

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